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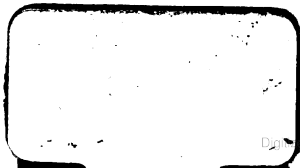
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A
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE,

ADAPTED TO

The Use of Schools and Academies.

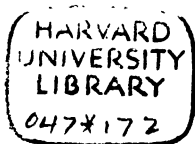
BY SAMUEL S. GREENE, A.M.

AUTHOR OF "INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF GRAMMAR," "ANALYSIS OF
SENTENCES," ETC., ETC.

PHILADELPHIA:
H. COWPERTHWAIT & CO.

1865.

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P R E F A C E.

It is now more than twelve years since the first publication of the "Analysis of Sentences." During this period the work has passed through many editions, and has received the most flattering testimonials from teachers and educators throughout the country. The tests to which it has been subjected in the hands of the most skilful instructors, have gone far to show that it has developed the true method of analyzing the English sentence.

As this was the first, so it has been the basis of all the author's other books upon the English Language. An abridgment under the title of "First Lessons in Grammar" was published in 1848. This book, though destitute of Oral Exercises, was adapted to a class of learners not yet prepared for the more rigid course developed in the Analysis.

To supply the want of Oral Exercises, the "Elements of English Grammar" was published in 1853. This work contained an Introductory course wholly oral, besides the exercises interspersed among the definitions. In these oral lessons, the pupil's acquaintance with familiar objects was made the means of developing all the fundamental distinctions in grammar. They were constructed upon the obvious principle that what is *seen* by a child reaches the understanding at once, and defines itself by appealing directly to his own judgment; while that which is *defined* in words, must be committed to memory as the result of another's judgment. Exercises like these, if faithfully given, must lay the foundation for a satisfactory, because intelligible, course of study in Grammar. These exercises were necessarily very numerous, and were often too full for the wants of advanced pupils. From the suggestions of many teachers who

(iii).

placed the highest value upon the oral exercises, it has been thought best to divide the work into two books—the first containing an introductory course of Oral Lessons, with enough of the principles of grammar to make it a suitable book for beginners,—the second containing a full course of study in English Grammar.

The “Introduction to the Study of English Grammar” was issued in 1856, and has been found to meet an important want in our schools. It contains an easy and gradual opening of the subject, and suggests a ready way of teaching the parts of speech, as well as the construction and analysis of sentences, without the disgust and discouragement usually attendant upon the commencement of the study. Indeed, in the hands of a skilful teacher, who could readily supply such matter as must necessarily be excluded from a merely elementary book, it will be found sufficient for ordinary school purposes.

The following work contains a full discussion of the principles of English Grammar. It is the result of an earnest endeavor to prepare a text book, in itself complete, and, at the same time, suitable for the school-room.

To render it complete, it has been necessary to discuss many topics belonging only to an advanced course; and to adapt it to the wants of the school-room, much of this matter is exhibited in smaller type, to distinguish between that which is of universal, and that which is only of occasional application—that which is to be learned, and that which is to be only carefully read over. One can scarcely analyze a single paragraph, even of easy composition, without falling upon some idiomatic or rare construction not explained in the general rules. It is believed that most of these cases have been provided for in the following pages. Whenever it has been possible to refer such examples to some modification of a general analogy, it has been done; and its relation to the regular construction has been indicated.

As a guide to the learner, constant references to topics related to each other are kept up, particularly in the Syntax: An outline of the subjects discussed on each page may be found at the bottom. In addition to these, a copious table of contents will enable one to find any topic at pleasure. To aid the learner in acquiring correct habits of analysis and parsing, numerous models, embracing all the varieties of construction and parts of speech,

will be found in the different parts of the book, accompanied with Exercises for practice. In cases where the learner is in danger of adopting ungrammatical constructions, he is furnished with the necessary Cautions, which also serve as guides in correcting false Syntax. A system of Punctuation, growing directly from the analysis of sentences, is appended to the Syntax, and will be found easy of application to any one who has thoroughly studied the discussion of Elements in 153—186 inclusive.

The fundamental principle upon which the subject has been developed is, that no theory of grammar is true or reliable, that cannot be abundantly verified by direct appeals to the usage of standard authors. The grammar of a language should be derived from the language itself. It is not the province of the grammarian to legislate in matters of language, but to classify and arrange its forms and principles by a careful study of its analogies as seen in the usage of the best writers. He does not *make* the rules and definitions which express these analogies; they had already existed, and were obeyed,—unconsciously, it is true,—long before he formed them into words and published them. Nor are they authoritative *because* he has uttered them, but simply because they are just and faithful interpretations of the already existing laws which underlie and pervade the language itself. He is a discoverer—not an inventor, not a dictator; but is true to his task just so far as he investigates and reinvestigates original sources found in the language itself,—not, of course, rejecting the light which cotemporary or previous labor has shed upon his pathway.

In the following classification of the principles of Grammar, greater prominence has been given to *ideas* than to mere *forms*. The complete sentence is at first regarded as a *unit*—an expression of a single *thought*, and that too whatever may be the number of propositions combined in it, or whatever may be the characteristic of the thought, as a statement, a command, an inquiry, or an exclamation. The *thought* determines the sentence. The classification of the sentence depends upon its specific peculiarities. Again, in separating the sentence into its parts, the element is taken as the unit, an expression of a single *idea* of the full thought—and that too whether it be a single word, or a group of words, or whatever may be its form, structure, rank, or

office. Here, again, the *idea* determines the element, while the classification depends upon some peculiarity of the element itself. Again, an element of the sentence may itself contain elements which may all conspire to express one of the chief ideas of the whole sentence. These, in like manner, are determined and classified. Finally, each single element is itself a *word*, or may be separated into the *words* which form it. Thus, it will be seen that the sentence is not, as is usual, regarded at once as an assemblage of words, but as an assemblage of elements variously expressed; and in the final analysis, these elements are reduced to words. It is this peculiarity that brings the learner into sympathy with the thought itself—the vital power which determines all the forms of the sentence. It gives him an interior view of its structure, and enables him to sit in judgment with the writer in his choice of forms.

The Grammar of the English Language will be found to contain nearly all the principles embodied in the Analysis, and in all that pertains to the classification, modification, and construction of words, it is believed, is sufficiently full. It is intended to follow the Introduction, and to precede the Analysis, which is adapted to advanced pupils.

Although each book may be used independently of the others, the order in which they stand is:

I. The Introduction.

II. The Grammar of the English Language.

III. The Analysis of Sentences.

The author acknowledges his indebtedness to many friends for a great variety of suggestions which he has noted, and embodied in some form or other in these pages. Many changes have been made in the arrangement of the matter, and slight modifications will be found in the matter itself. As a whole, it is hoped, the work will be found both complete and convenient as a text book of English Grammar.

S. S. GREENE.

PROVIDENCE, May, 1860.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. Definitions and Divisions.

1. ENGLISH GRAMMAR treats of the principles and usages of the English language; it teaches us to speak and write it correctly.

2. It relates;—

- (a.) To the elementary sounds and letters of the language;
- (b.) To the classification and modifications of its words;
- (c.) To the structure of its sentences,—and
- (d.) To the laws of its versification. Hence,

3. *Grammar* is divided into four parts—*Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.

4. *Orthography* treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

5. *Etymology* treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

6. *Syntax* treats of the construction of sentences.

7. *Prosody* treats of the laws of versification.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

2. Definition.

Orthography treats of elementary sounds, the letters which represent them, and the combination of letters into syllables and words.

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

3. Number and Classes.

1. An *elementary* sound is the simplest sound of the language; as, the sound of *a, e; b* or *k*.

2. The English language contains about forty elementary sounds.

3. These sounds are divided into three classes—*vocals, subvocals, and aspirates*.

4. The *vocals* consist of pure tone only. They are the sounds of *a, e, i, o, u, ou*; as, in *a-le, f-a-r, b-a-ll, h-a-t, m-e, m-e-t, f-i-ne, p-i-n, g-o-ld, m-o-ve, n-o-t, m-u-te, p-u-ll, c-u-p, f-ou-nd*.

REMARK.—The letters are but imperfect guides to these sounds. It is better therefore to disregard them wholly in the exercises on elementary sounds, and direct the attention exclusively to the sounds themselves.

5. The *subvocals* consist of tone united with breath. They are the sounds of *b, d, g, j, l, m, n, ng, r, th, v, w, z, z (zh), y*; as, in *b-at, d-og, g-o, j-oy, l-ot, m-an, n-o, so-ng, ba-r, th-is, v-at, w-in, z-one, a-z-ure, y-es*.

6. The *aspirates* consist of pure breath only. They are the sounds of *f, h, k, p, s, t, th, sh, ch, wh*; as, in *f-ai-th, h-ome, ar-k, p-ine, s-un, t-ake, th-ink, sh-one, ch-ur-l, wh-en*.

7. When closely examined, some of the sounds here represented as elementary, as, for example, *i* in *isle* (*a* in *far* and *e* in *me*), *ou* in *found* (*a* in *all* and *oo* in *fool*), *j* in *joy* (*dzh*), *ch* in *church* (*tsh*), may be resolved into simpler sounds, yet, for practical purposes, they may be regarded as elementary.

4. Classes of Vocals.

1. Vocals are divided into *long* and *short*.

2. The *long* sound is one that can be protracted at pleasure; as in *may*—*ay*, *bee*—*ee*.

3. The *short* sound is one that is uttered with an explosive effort; as in *pin, pen, hat, sit*.

4. The long and short vocals are formed with the same position of the organs. Thus, *a* in *hat* is properly the short sound of *a* in *far*, not *a* in *hate*; while *e* in *met* is the short sound of *a* in *hate*. The *i* in *pin* is the short sound of *ee* in *seen*. The *o* in *not* is the short sound of *o* in *nor*, not *o* in *note*. The *u* in *but* is the short sound of *u* in *fur*, not *u* in *mute*.

Elementary Sounds. Vocals, long and short.

5. Classes of Subvocals and Aspirates.

1. The subvocals and aspirates are divided in a similar manner, into *continuous* and *explosive*.

2. The *continuous* are capable of prolongation.

They are the sounds of (subvocals) *l, m, n, ng, r, th, v, w, y, z, zh*; as, in *ba-ll, ca-m-e, rai-n, so-ng, ca-r, ba-th-e, la-v-e, w-o, y-es, ma-z-e, a-z-ure*; (aspirates), *f, h, s, th, sh, wh*, in *lea-f, h-eat, thi-s, hea-th, lea-sh, wh-y*.

3. The *explosive* are incapable of prolongation.

They are the sounds of (subvocals) *b, d, g, j*; as, in *ca-b, be-d, do-g, j-ob*; (aspirates), *p, t, k, ch* in *ti-p, pi-t, k-in, lur-ch*.

4. The subvocals, represented by *w* and *y*, are nearly allied to the vocals in *oo-ze* and *m-ee-t*. They may be called *semi-vocals*.

5. The aspirates represented by *wh*, and *h*, are properly *breathings*. The sound of *h* is formed with an open position of the organs; that of *wh* with the lips contracted nearly as in the sound of *v*.

6. Of the remaining subvocals, eight have this remarkable property, that they are formed with the same position of the organs as an equal number of aspirates, giving rise to eight pairs, *b-p, d-t, g-k, j-ch, th-th, v-f, z-s, zh-sh*, called *correlatives*.

7. The first four pairs are explosive, the others are continuous.

8. The subvocals, represented by *l, m, n, ng* and *r*, have no corresponding aspirates.

9. The eight pairs, or *correlatives*, are called *mutes*; the others, *liquids*.

10. The following points of difference between a mute and a liquid may be noted:—

- (a) All the liquids are subvocals,—while half of the mutes are aspirates;
- (b) The liquids are all continuous,—while half of the mutes are explosive;
- (c) Every continuous subvocal mute has a rough, buzzing sound; the liquids have a smooth, flowing sound;
- (d) A mute may unite with a mute, but it must be a subvocal with a subvocal, or an aspirate with an aspirate. (See 13, 2.) A liquid may unite with a liquid, as in *arm, barn*; or with a mute either subvocal or aspirate, as in *carp, card, hart, hard*.

REMARK.—It must not be understood, however, that any liquid will combine with any other liquid, or that any liquid will combine with any mute. Thus, the sounds of *mn* will not coalesce; the sound of *l* seldom unites with that of *m* or *n*. The sound of *m* does not readily unite with that of *k*; nor does the sound of *n* with that of *p*.

11. The mutes and liquids have certain affinities for each other, which arise mainly from a similarity in the position of the organs with

Subvocals and Aspirates, continuous and explosive. Semi-vocals. Breathings. Correlatives. Mutes. Liquids.

which they are produced. Thus, the sound of *m* most readily unites with the sound of *p*, as in *hemp*, *lamp*; the sound of *n* unites most readily with *t*, *d*, or aspirate *th*, as in *sent*, *end*, *tenth*; also, *ng* with *th*, as in *strength*, *length*; the sounds of *l* and *r* readily unite with nearly all the mutes, as in *elf*, *melt*, *weld*, *belch*, *orb*, *heart*, *ark*, *large*.

6. Table of Elementary Sounds.

Vocals.	Subvocals.	Aspirates.	Correlatives.
1. a-le	1. b-at	1. f-aith	1. b-ow = p-ole
2. f-a-r	2. d-og	2. h-ome	2. d-og = t-on
3. b-a-ll	3. g-o	3. ar-k	3. g-et = k-ind
4. h-a-t	4. j-oy	4. p-ine	4. th-is = th-umb
5. m-e	5. l-ot	5. s-un	5. j-ob = ch-in
6. m-e-t	6. m-an	6. t-ake	6. v-an = f-an
7. f-i-ne	7. n-o	7. th-ink	7. s-one = s-on
8. p-i-n	8. so-ng	8. sh-one	8. a-s-ure = sh-ut
9. g-o-ld	9. ba-r	9. ch-ur-l	
10. m-o-ve	10. th-is	10. wh-en	
11. n-o-t	11. v-at		
12. m-u-te	12. w-ise		
13. p-u-ll	13. s-one		
14. c-u-p	14. a-s-ure		
15. f-ou-nd	15. y-es		

7. Exercise.

1. The teacher, uttering the sound of *a* in *name*, says,—“How many heard my voice?” Let the class give the same. The teacher, again, gives the sound of *f* in *fine* (not the name *eff*, but the sound alone). “Do you hear a voice sound or a whispering sound?” The class utter the sound. Adding a slight vocality to the sound of *f*, with the organs in the same position, he gives the sound of *v*. “How many hear any voice sound now?” Returning to the sound of *f*,—“Do you now hear any voice sound? or only a whispering or breath sound?” Giving the sound of *o* in *note*,—“What sound do you hear now?” In the same manner treat the other elementary sounds.

2. Tell by the sound which letters in the following promiscuous examples represent VOCALS, which SUBVOCALS, and which ASPIRATES:—

And, great, made, fame, sad, mete, gave, life, voice, six, zebra, full, bridge, sup, thin, thought, thine, when, whistle, sent, gone, white, lone, fidget, cup, farm, wine, yes, so, knit, type, book, crow, met, line, pin, hat, harp, jug, king, long, nut, move, lot, queer, rind, street, sing, mute, suit, vine, sire, exist, sift, form, risk, mart, park, plum.

Mutes and Liquids. Table of Elementary Sounds.

3. In the preceding examples tell which of the vocals are LONG and which SHORT; tell which of the subvocals and aspirates are CONTINUOUS and which EXPLOSIVE. Select three words having two aspirate sounds united; two having two subvocal mutes; five having a liquid and a subvocal mute; five having a liquid and an aspirate; and two having two liquids.

LETTERS.

8. The Alphabet.

1. A letter is a *character* used to represent an elementary sound.

2. The English alphabet contains twenty-six letters: A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

3. Letters cannot be too carefully distinguished from *elementary sounds*. The letter is an arbitrary mark addressed to the *eye*; an elementary sound is always addressed to the *ear*.

9. Classes of Letters.

1. Letters are divided,—

(a.) In respect to their forms, into *capitals* and *small letters*.

(b.) In respect to the sounds they represent, into *vowels* and *consonants*.

(c.) In respect to their application to these sounds, into *permanent*, *variable*, and *silent*.

2. Capitals are used for the sake of distinction; small letters constitute the principal part of every composition. (See 29).

3. The various *styles* of letters are the Roman, the *Italic*, *Old English*, and *Script*.

4. Letters of the same style differ in *size*, giving rise to the following distinctions:—

Great Primer,
English,
Pica,
Small Pica,
Long Primer,

Bourgeois,
Brevier,
Minion,
Nonpareil,
Agate,
Pearl,
Diamond.

Letters. Capitals. Small Letters. Styles, and Sizes.

2*

B

5. Those letters which represent vocals are called *vowels*. They are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

6. *W* and *Y* are consonants when they precede a vowel heard in the same syllable; as, *wine, twine, yes, yet*. In all other situations they are vowels; as, *rye, grew*.

NOTE.—*I*, when it represents the sound of *y*, as in *al-ien, min-ion*, is to be considered as a consonant.

7. Those letters which represent subvocals and aspirates, are called *consonants*.

8. The consonants, are *b, d, g, l, m, n, r, v, z* (subvocal), and *f, h, k, c, q, p, t, s* (aspirates); *x* is a subvocal when it is equivalent to *gs*, an aspirate when it is equivalent to *ks*.

9. When a letter is invariably applied to the same sound, it is said to be *permanent*; as, *m, n, p, t*.

10. When a letter represents several different sounds, it is said to be *variable*; as, *a* in *name, far, fat, hall, care, what, liar*.

11. When a letter stands for no sound, it is said to be *silent*; as, *g* in *gnat*.

12. When several variable letters, or combinations of letters, represent the same sound, they are called *equivalents*; as, *n-ame, g-ay, th-ey*. Thus, *ā* may be equivalent to *ai, ay, ei, ey, ao, au*, as in *vain, pay, rein, prey, gaol, gauge*.

13. The following table embraces most of the equivalents:—

<i>a</i> =	<i>ai, ay, ei, ey, ao, au, ue</i> , in <i>vain, pay, rein, prey, gaol, gauge, bouquet</i> .
<i>a</i> =	<i>e, ei, ai, ea</i> , in <i>there, their, fair, bear</i> .
<i>a</i> =	<i>aw, oa, o, au, ou, awe</i> , in <i>law, broad, for, applaud, bought, awe</i> .
<i>e</i> =	<i>ee, ey, ea, ie, ei, i</i> , in <i>tree, key, flea, brief, conceive, fatigue</i> .
<i>e</i> =	<i>a, u, ai, ay, ea, ei, eo</i> , in <i>many, bury, again, says, head, heifer, feoff</i> .
<i>i</i> =	<i>y, ey, ie, uy, ai, ei, ui, ye</i> , in <i>by, eye, die, buy, aisle, height, guide, lye</i> .
<i>i</i> =	<i>o, u, y, ie, ee, ui</i> , in <i>women, busy, hymn, sieve, been, guilt</i> .
<i>o</i> =	<i>oo, owe, oa, oe, ow, ou, ew, eau</i> , in <i>door, owe, goat, roe, flow, dough, sew, bean</i> .
<i>o</i> =	<i>a</i> , in <i>what</i> .
<i>u</i> =	in <i>ew, ue, iew, ieu, eau, eu, ui, ou</i> , in <i>flew, hue, view, adieu, beauty, deuce, sluice, you</i> .
<i>u</i> =	<i>o, oo, ou</i> , in <i>wolf, wool, would</i> .
<i>u</i> =	<i>o, e, i, y, oe, ou</i> , in <i>ton, her, sir, myrrh, does, touch</i> .
<i>ou</i> =	<i>ow</i> , in <i>now</i> .
<i>oi</i> =	<i>oy</i> , in <i>joy</i> .
<i>z</i> =	<i>c, s, x</i> , in <i>sacrifice, was, Xerxes</i> .
<i>f</i> =	<i>ph, v</i> , in <i>Philip, of</i> .
<i>j</i> =	<i>g</i> , in <i>joy</i> .
<i>x</i> =	<i>ks, gs, z</i> , in <i>wax, example, Xerxes</i> .
<i>sh</i> =	<i>s, ch, ce, ci, si, ti</i> , in <i>sure, chaise, ocean, gracious, session, partial</i> .
<i>ch</i> =	<i>te</i> in <i>righteous</i> .

Vowels. Consonants. Permanent. Variable. Silent. Equivalents.

10. Exercise.

1. Tell which letters are vowels, and which are consonants, in the following words :—

Name, war, come, peace, tree, fish, good, live, old, sad, young, wine, said, yet, win, new, gay, day.

2. Tell which of the following letters represent vocals, which subvocals, and which aspirates :—

a, f, g, m, c, k, d, p, o, w, s, h, y, t, r, v, x, l, e, j.

3. Analyze the following words by giving, in order, the elementary sounds (not the names of the letters); tell how many sounds and how many letters each has; also what letters are silent :—

Mete, laugh, bought, fought, believe, phthisic, balm, rough, piece, beauty, thought, blight.

MODEL. M—ē—t = mete :—three sounds and four letters. The final e is silent.

4. In the following examples, tell what words contain equivalents of a in name; of a in ball; of a in fare; of e in mete; of e in end; of i in iron; of i in ink; of o in go; of o in dot; of u in music; of u in pull; of u in gun; of ou in plough, and of oi in toil :—

Grain, air, awl, see, bread, symbol, floor, what, new, could, son, now, deign, lair, nor, defraud, brought, awed, key, deaf, been, owed, blue, should, rough, boy, feign, bear, sea, women, coat, lieutenant, tough, hay, there, lief, buy, beaux, pay, perceive, guile, bouquet, league, rain, sought, nay, brief, bee, deceive, instead.

5. Tell what words in the following list contain equivalents to any sounds of c, f, g, x, z, sh, and ch :—

Kent, phlegm, tacks, chagrin, righteous, phonography, physician, sacrifice, champagne, single, exist, ferocious, partition, nation, phonetics, physics, sit, stand, chamois, quarrel, join, Xenophon, passion, phosphorus, just, oceanic, jump, beaux.

11. Combination of Letters.

1. When two or more letters unite, to represent a union of elementary sounds, they form a *combination* of letters; as, *ou, oi, bl, on, no, not, breath, breadth, thrusts*.

2. Sometimes a combination of elementary sounds is represented by a

Combination of Letters.

single letter; as, *i* = *a e* (*a* in *far*, and *e* in *me*); *u* in *union* = *yu*; *o* in *one* = *wu*.

3. Sometimes a combination of letters represents a single elementary sound; as, *th* in *this*; *ti*, *ci*, *si*, *ce*, in *martial*, *mission*, *official*, *ocean*; *oo*, *ee*, *aa*, *gg*, *zz*, *bb*, *ff*, *ll*, *tt*, in *door*, *feet*, *Isaac*, *egg*, *buzz*, *ebb*, *off*, *call*, *butt*.

12. Union of Vowels.

1. A *diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one syllable; as, *ou* in *sound*, *oi* in *voice*.

2. A *proper* diphthong is one in which both vowels are sounded; as, *ou* in *thou*.

3. An *improper* diphthong is one in which one of the vowels is silent; as, the *a* in *heat*.

4. A *triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one syllable; as, *eau* in *beauty*.

5. A *proper* triphthong is one in which the three vowels are sounded; as, *uoy* in *buoy*.

6. An *improper* triphthong is one in which one or two of the vowels are silent; as, *ea* in *beauty*, *ie* in *adieu*.

13. Union of Consonants.

1. Two consonants are said to unite when their sounds coalesce; as, *blend*, *thrice*.

2. If they represent two *mutes*, these must be similar, that is, both subvocals or both aspirates; as, *apt*, *adse*, *hats*. (See 5, 10, (d).)

3. If two consonants representing dissimilar mutes come together, the sound of one, usually the latter, is changed to its correlative, though the letter remain the same; (5, 6); as, *bag*, *bags*, *pad*, *pads* = *bagz*, *padz*, placed = *plac'd* = *plact*. In *oath*, *bath*, and others, *th* aspirate becomes *th* subvocal in the plural, and *s* follows the rule. Not so with *th* in *truths*, *youths*.

NOTE.—By analysing the plurals *bags* and *pads*, and the possessives *dog's* and *stag's*, it will be seen that, though we add the letter *s*, which should represent an aspirate, we do not add an aspirate sound, but the subvocal sound represented by *s*, and that because it is preceded by the subvocals represented by *g* and *d*. Mark the difference in the following plurals, where *s* is preceded by an aspirate: *caps*, *hats*, *locks*.

Though *d* should represent a subvocal, yet in *plac'd* it takes the sound of

Diphthongs, proper and improper. Triphthongs, proper and improper. Consonants coalesce.

its correlative *t*, because it is made to unite with a preceding aspirate. In the present state of the language, this rule is quite uniform, as may be seen in the past tenses and participles of several verbs; as, *looked* = *look'd* = *lookt*. This will account for the changes in many of the verbs now called irregular; as, *weep, weeped* = *wep'd* = *wept*. So *sleep, creep*.

3. When they represent two *liquids*, they are always similar (5, 8, 9), and their sounds, with some exceptions, readily coalesce; as *arm, elm, barn, marl*. *N* becomes silent after *m*, as in *hymn*, and after *l* in *kila*.

4. When they represent, the one a mute, and the other a liquid, even, though dissimilar, their sounds readily unite; as, *spend, spent, halt, hart*. (See 5, 10, (d).)

5. When two identical letters (double letters) come together, whether standing for mutes or liquids, they seldom represent more than a single sound (11, 3); thus, *egg, butt, ebb, whiff* = *eg, but, eb, whif*.

14. Union of Vowels and Consonants.

1. Any consonant sound may unite with a vowel sound; as, *an, no, did, call*.

15. Exercise.

1. Point out the vowel combinations in the following words; tell whether the diphthongs are proper or improper:—

Fear, pear, voice, sound, pierce, receive, Europe, people, view, adieu, beauty, though, chief, fail, Cæsar, how, sew, gaol, mail, deal.

2. Point out the consonant combinations in the following, and tell what letters are identical, and what are changed into their correlatives:—

Birds, blend, apt, capped, clapped, buzz, mats, heads, beads, brought, off, skiff, pass, insist, first, faced, round, word, gird, gold, sold, bulb, verb, worm, last, craft, compact, acts.

SYLLABLES.

16. Formation of Syllables.

1. A *syllable* is a letter or combination of letters uttered with one impulse of the voice; as, *mat, mat-ter, ma-te-ri-al*.

2. The *essential* part of a syllable is a vowel.

NOTE.—By *vowel* here is meant a vowel sound, whether represented by a single letter, a diphthong or a triphthong.

3. A syllable may consist, 1

(a.) Of a vowel; as, *a-cre, ei-ther*.

Union of liquids,—of identical letters,—of vowels and consonants. Syllables, essential part of.

(b.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants prefixed; as, *ba-sis*, *bri-er*, *three*, *phthi-sis*.

(c.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants affixed; as, *in*, *elf*, *inter-ests*, *earths*.

(d.) Of a vowel with one or more consonants both prefixed and affixed; as, *m-oo-n*, *tr-u-th*, *thr-u-its*.

4. A vowel is said to be *modified* by the consonant which unites with it. Thus, in *model*, *o*, and not *e*, is modified by *d*.

5. The process of combining elementary parts is called *synthesis*, and that of separating a combination into its elements is called *analysis*.

NOTE.—In analyzing a syllable, let the learner tell, (1.) the *essential* part, that is, the vowel or diphthong; (2.) the consonant or combination (13.) of consonants which is *prefixed* to it; (3.) the consonant or combination of consonants which is *affixed* to it.

17. Exercise.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING SYLLABLES.

An . . . is a syllable consisting of two elements:—

A is the essential element,—it is a vowel. (Give its sound.)

n is a consonant, and represents a subvocal; it is affixed to *a*, which it modifies. (Give its sound.)

Break . is a syllable consisting of three parts:—

ea is the essential part,—it is a diphthong (why?), improper (why?); *e* is silent,—*a* only is sounded. (Give its sound.)

Br . . . is a union (13.) of two consonants, both representing subvocals, *b* and *r*, which are prefixed to *ea*. (Give their sounds separately, then together.)

k is a consonant representing an aspirate, and is affixed to *ea*. (Give its sound.)

1. *Analyze the following syllables, and describe each element:—*

Kite, dog, numb, boat, friend, truth, day, wax, bat, view, sound, aid, meet, suit, rude, the, think, sit, leave, three, bursts, threats.

2. *Form syllables by prefixing ONE consonant to a, ay, ey, ou, ieu, y; TWO or MORE consonants to e, oo, oe, i, ou, oi, ee, ea, ay, ey; by affixing ONE, TWO, or THREE consonants to any five of the above vowels or diphthongs.*

3. *Form ten syllables in which one, two, or more consonants shall be prefixed and affixed to any vowel or union of vowels.*

WORDS.

18. Words Classified by their Syllables.

1. A word is one or more syllables used as the sign of an idea.

Formation of syllables. Vowel modified. Synthesis. Analysis. Words.

REMARK.—Written words are used to represent both *sounds* and *ideas*. As the representatives of sounds, they are classified according to the number of syllables they contain.

2. A word of one syllable is called a *monosyllable*; as, *boy, pen, tree*.
3. A word of two syllables is called a *dissyllable*; as, *na-ture, faith-ful*.
4. A word of three syllables is called a *trisyllable*; as, *nat-u-ral, faith-ful-ness*.
5. A word of four or more syllables is called a *polysyllable*; as, *un-nat-u-ral, un-faith-ful-ness*.
6. *Accent* is a stress of the voice placed upon a particular syllable, to distinguish it from others.
7. Every word of more than one syllable has one of its syllables accented.
8. The accented syllable may be either the first, last, or a middle syllable; as, *du'ty, belong', pre-par'ing*.
9. Some words have a primary and secondary accent; as, *in''defat'-igable, in''comprehen'sible*.

NOTE.—In analyzing a word according to its syllables, it should be separated by (31, 1), the accented syllable pointed out, and then each syllable analyzed as in (17).

19. Exercise.

MODELS FOR ANALYZING WORDS.

Faithfulness . is a trisyllable; repeat (18, 4).

Faith is the accented syllable; repeat (18, 6).

ful and *ness* . are unaccented syllables.

Change the accent first to *ful*, then to *ness*; restore it to its true place.

Analyze each syllable, (17).

1. *Analyze and describe the following words:—*

Beat, said, tree; friendship, social, himself, stately; complaining, interpret, indolence; incessantly, condemnation, interdicting, domesticate; consanguinity, confederation, impenetrable; mispronunciation, incomprehensible, indefatigable; impenetrability; incomprehensibility.

2. *Correct the accent in the following words:—*

Local', indo'lence, memo'nable, ig'nable, frequent'ly, lament'able, actu'al, indispu'table, immuta'ble, retro'spect, com'pletion, late'ral.

3. *Change the accent in the following words to the second syllable, and give their meaning:—*

Au'gust, con'jure, des'ert, en'trance, min'ute, pres'ent, proj'ect, in'valid.

Monosyllables. Dissyllables. Trisyllables. Polysyllables. Accent.

4. Write the following words upon your slate, and divide them into syllables, marking the accented syllable:—

Conscience, detecting, inability, indubitable, commotion, laborious, relate, detestation, infesting, exemplary.

MODEL. Con'science.

20. Primitive, Derivative, and Compound Words.

1. A word in no way derived from a *radical* is a *primitive* word; as, *form*, *harm*.

2. A *radical* is a word or part of a word wholly underived from any other word.

3. A word formed by joining to a radical some letter or syllable, to modify its meaning, is a *derivative* word; as, *re-form*, *harm-less*.

4. A word formed by uniting two or more entire words is a *compound* word; as, *inkstand*, *schoolhouse*.

5. The parts of those compounds which have been long in use are generally united closely; as, *nevertheless*, *sunrise*; in others, the hyphen (-) is used to separate the parts; as, *labor-saving*:

21. Exercise.

1. Tell which of the following words are PRIMITIVE, which DERIVATIVE, and which COMPOUND:—

Bright, fair, told, meek, some, playful, joyless, income, bookstore, play-mate, cloud-capped, ink, housetop, fearful, reform, dismember, dreary.

2. Form derivative words from the following primitives, and draw a line under the added syllable or letter:—

Hope, fear, harm, love, care, know, peer, ape, weed, cloud, form, grade, place, joy, truth, poet, fade, weep, laugh.

MODEL. Hopeless.

3. Form compound words by joining some appropriate word to each of the following:—

Air, chest, alms, bank, birth, bill, fire, eye, weed, toll, wood, foot, work, play, land, busy, tree, breeze.

MODEL. Air-pump.

SPELLING.

22. Spelling Defined.

Spelling is the art of representing words by their proper letters;

Primitive, derivative, and compound words. Radicals. Spelling.

it may be treated of under the three classes of words,—*primitive*, *derivative*, and *compound*.

PRIMITIVE WORDS.

23. Rules for Primitives.

NOTE.—The spelling of primitive words should be learned mainly from the dictionary or spelling book. The following are the most obvious rules:—

1. RULE I. Monosyllables ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *stuff*, *bell*, *miss*. *If*, *of*, *as*, *gas*, *was*, *has*, *yes*, *is*, *his*, *this*, *us*, *thus*, are exceptions.

2. RULE II. Words ending in any other consonant than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; as, *put*, *rap*, *on*, *trim*, *brag*, *star*. *Add*, *odd*, *ebb*, *egg*, *inn*, *bunn*, *err*, *burr*, *purr*, *butt*, *buzz*, *fuzz*, are exceptions.

DERIVATIVE WORDS—PREFIXES.

24. Rules for applying Prefixes.

NOTE.—In the formation of derivative words, the final letters of the primitive, as well as those of the prefix, often undergo a change. Hence the following rules should be studied with care.

1. That part of a derivative word which is placed *before* the radical is called a *prefix*; as, *re-turn*, *pre-pay*.

NOTE.—In applying prefixes to radicals, certain changes often take place, to render the sound more agreeable. These changes are made according to the following rules:—

2. RULE I. DROPPING THE FINAL LETTER.—The final letter of a prefix is sometimes omitted; as, *co-existent*, for *con-existent*; *anti-arctic*, for *anti-arctic*.

3. RULE II. CHANGING THE FINAL LETTER.—The final letter of a prefix is often changed to one which will harmonize, in sound, with the initial letter of the radical; as, *im-pious*, for *in-pious*.

(a.) The final letter of the prefix generally becomes the same as the first letter of the radical; as, *il-limitable*.

(b.) The principal prefixes which undergo this change are *ad* (*ac*, *af*, *ag*, *al*, *an*, *ap*, *ar*, *as*, *at*); *con* (*cog*, *com*, *col*, *cor*); *en* (*em*); *e* (*ex*, *ec*, *ef*); *dis* (*diff*, *di*); *ob* (*of*, *oc*, *op*); *sub* (*suc*, *suf*, *sug*, *sup*, *sur*); *syn* (*sym*, *syl*).

Primitives in *f*, *l*, or *s*. Prefixes. Rules for final letter.

DERIVATIVE WORDS—SUFFIXES.

25. Rules for applying Suffixes.

1. That part of a derivative word which is placed *after* the radical is called a *suffix*; as, *faith-ful*, *end-less*.

NOTE.—In applying suffixes, the final letter or letters of the radical are often changed. Such changes are made according to the following rules:—

2. **RULE I. DOUBLING THE FINAL LETTER.**—On receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, the final consonant of a monosyllable, or of any word accented on the last syllable, is doubled, if the radical ends with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel; otherwise it remains single; as, *dig-ing*, *digging*, *defer-ing*, *deferring*; so *appeal*, becoming in the derivative *appel*, gives *appellant*. Not so *repair-ing*, *defend-ing*, *differ-ing*. *Acquit*, following the rule, gives *acquitted*, since *qu* = *kw*.

(a.) In many words ending in *l*; as *travel*, *libel*, *cancel*, *cavil*, *chisel*, *counsel*, *duel*, *equal*, *gravel*, *model*, *pencil*, *revel*, *rival*, *trammel*, *tunnel*, *angil*, &c., some double the *l* on adding a suffix beginning with a vowel, though the accent is not on the last syllable; others follow the rule. To these words add *worship*, *bias*, *kidnap*; *worship-ping*, *bias-sing*, *kidnap-ping*.

(b.) As *x* final is equivalent to *ks*, it is never doubled; as, *mix*, *mixed*, *mixing*.

(c.) When in the derivative word, the accent is changed to a preceding syllable of the root, the final letter is not always doubled; as, from *prefer*, we have *preference*, and *preferable*; from *refer*, *reference*, and *referable*, or *referrible*; *infer*, *inference*, *inferable*, *inferrible*; *transfer*, *transferable*, or *transferrible*.

The derivatives of *excel*, and some other words, though the accent is changed, still double the final letter; as, *excel*, *excellent*, *excellence*.

3. **RULE II. DROPPING THE FINAL LETTER.**—On receiving a suffix beginning with a vowel, the final vowel of the radical is dropped, in words ending in *e* silent; as, *love-ing*, *loving*; *love-ed*, *loved*; also in some words ending in *y* and *i*; as, *felicity-ate*, *felicitate*; *dei-ism*, *deism*.

(a.) Contrary to the general rule, the final *e* is retained, when preceded by *e* or *g*, to preserve the soft sound of these letters; as, *peace-able*, *peaceable*; *change-able*, *changeable*. So also we have *singeing* and *swingeing*, to distinguish them from *singing*, *swinging*.

(b.) The final letters *le*, when followed by *ly*, are dropped; as, *noble-ly*, *nobly*. So also *t* or *te* before *ce* or *cy*; as, *vagrant-cy*, *vagrancy*; *prelate-cy*, *prelacy*.

Suffix. Rules for final letter of radical.

(c.) Words ending in *ll* usually drop one *l* on taking an additional syllable beginning with a consonant; as, skill-ful, *skilful*.

(d.) Sometimes when the final *e* is preceded by a vowel, it is dropped before a suffix beginning with a consonant; as *true*, *truly*; *awe*, *awful*; sometimes it is retained; as, *rue*, *rueful*; *shoe*, *shoeless*. The final *e* preceded by a consonant is dropped before a suffix beginning with a consonant in the words, *whole*, *wholly*; *judge*, *judgment*; *abridge*, *abridgment*; *acknowledge*, *acknowledgment*.

4. RULE III. CHANGING THE FINAL LETTER.—The final *y* of a radical is generally changed to *i*, if preceded by a consonant; otherwise it usually remains unchanged; as *happy-est*, *happiest*; *duty-es*, *duties*; *day-s*, *days*.

(a.) Before the terminations *ly* and *ness*, some words, as *shy*, *dry*, do not change the final *y*. To prevent doubling *i*, the *y* is not changed when the suffix begins with *i*; as, *marry-ing*, *marrying*. For the same reason, the *e* being dropped by Rule II., in *die*, *lie*, *tie*, *vie*, the *i* is changed into *y*; as, *dying*, *lying*, *tying*, *vying*.

(b.) The *f*, in words ending in *f* or *fe*, is often changed to *v*, when the suffix begins with a vowel; as, *life*, by (25, 3) *lif*,—plural *liv-es*, *lives*.

(c.) From *lay*, *pay*, *say*, and *stay*, though *y* is preceded by a vowel, we have *laid*, *paid*, *said*, and *staid*. So from *day*, we have *daily*; and from *gay*, *gaily*, and *gaiety*; though better written *gayly* and *gayety*.

26. Exercise.

1. *Change by rule, and prefix ANTI to arctic; CON to temporary, laborer, extensive, location, mend, mix, mingle, nomen, relative; AD to scribe, credit, firm, fluent, legation, rest, point, ply, tempt; IN to religious, legal, legible, liberal, noble, perfect, penitent, potent, prove; EN to body, broil; OB to position, press, cur, fend; SUB to cession, fix, fumigation, fusion, gest, press, render; SYN to pathetic, logistic; EX to centric, flux; DIS to fuse, late.*

2. *Apply the preceding rules by adding ING, ED, or EE, to beg, sit, dig, dim, bed, dog, let, bet, prefer, transfer, forget, dispel, propel, besit, control, travel, level, counsel; love, compile, receive, leave, grieve, confine, define. Add ABLE to peace, change, sale;—LY to able, disagreeable, conformable, idle, noble;—FUL to skill, will;—ES, ED, or ING, to duty, lily, glory, story, history, beauty, beautify, amplify, rectify.*

3. *Correct the following and explain your corrections:—*

Beding, beting, wives, debared, abhorrent, alkalioid, glorious, citys, fancyful, tarriing, carriing, dutyful, bountyful, handsomeest, bloting, fameous, agreeable, incompatible.

Rule for changing final letter.

4. *Analyze* incomplete, goodness, hopeful, retrograde.

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS.

Impenitent . . . is a derivative word. (Why?)

Penitent is the radical part, and signifies *repenting*.

Im is the prefix (*in*, Rule II.), and signifies *not*.

Hence, IMPENITENT, *not* *repenting*.

COMPOUND WORDS.

27. Formation of Compound Words.

1. Compound words usually follow the orthography of the *primitive* words of which they are composed.

2. In compounds which are closely united (20, 5), *full* and *all* drop the final *i*; as, *handful*, *careful*, *fulfil*, *always*, *although*, *withal*; but in those compounds which are merely temporary, the *ll* is retained; as, *full-faced*, *chock-full*, *all-wise*.

3. When possessives are compounded with other words, they often drop the apostrophe; as, *herdsmen*, *helmsman* (210, 18, a.).

4. *Chilblain*, *welcome*, *welfare*, and *fulfil*, drop one *l*; *shepherd*, *wherever*, and *whosever*, drop an *e*; and *wherefore* and *therefore* assume one.

28. Exercise.

1. *Correct the errors in the following examples, and give the rule by which each correction is made:*—

W^{il}, kniting, frized, clif, peacable, bur, stil, manumited, buieth, occuring, differring, begg, knel, bels, mobb, bigotted, whigism, gass, coquetish, swiming, cryeth, spyed, shily, shuned, veryest, maiest, interrupting, spoonful, al-powerful, allways, somthing, stilyards, defereng, prevailing.

29. Rules for the use of Capitals.

1. RULE I. The titles of books, and the heads of their parts, chapters, sections, and divisions, are usually printed in capitals; as, CLASSES OF NOUNS; COMPOUND RELATIVES. When the titles of books are quoted, only their principal words should begin with capitals; as, "Watts on the Mind." Inscriptions on signs and monuments are subject to the same rule.

2. RULE II. The first word of every entire sentence, and of

every independent expression, or phrase, should begin with a capital; as, "Evil communications corrupt good manners." "The words of the prophet."

(a.) When the dependent parts of a complete sentence are made into separate paragraphs, each part should begin with a capital; as, "Nouns are divided into,—

Proper, which denote individuals,—

Common, which denote classes."

3. RULE III. Proper names, and adjectives derived from proper names, should begin with a capital; as, *America, American; Boston, Bostonian.*

(a.) When the proper name of a person, place, river, or mountain, has become a consolidated compound word, only one capital should be used; as, Northampton, Southbridge, Newcastle; but when the parts remain separate, each should begin with a capital; as, South Berwick, New York, Old Saybrook. In many compound names usage is not uniform. Thus, *Newcastle*, used as the name of some thirty different places in England, Ireland, and British America, is consolidated; while in the United States, in some twenty different instances, the parts are separated, thus: New-Castle. The same may be said of New Haven, New Market, and others.

4. RULE IV. Titles of honor, office, respect, and distinction, usually begin with a capital; as, *Chief Justice Marshall, His Majesty, General Washington.*

(a.) When a title is used with a proper name, merely for the purpose of explanation, it should begin with a small letter; as, *The apostle Peter; The prophet Daniel.*

5. RULE V. All appellations of the Deity should begin with a capital; as, *God, Jehovah, The Eternal, The Almighty.*

(a.) The personal pronouns, *he, his, him, thou, thy, and thee*, when they refer to the Deity, sometimes, especially when emphatic, begin with a capital. This usage is neither universal nor uniform.

6. RULE VI. The first word of every line in poetry should begin with a capital.

7. RULE VII. The words *I* and *O* should be capitals.

8. RULE VIII. Any common noun used to denote an object personified, or an object to be made specially emphatic, should begin with a capital; as, "Cheered with the grateful smell, old Ocean smiles"—*Milton*; "In the Creed the same distinction is properly observed"—*Harrison*.

Rules for capitals, III., IV., V., VI., VII., VIII.

9. **RULE IX.** The first word of a direct quotation, so introduced as to form a sentence of itself, should begin with a capital; as, "He saith unto him, Feed my sheep."

30. Exercise.

1. *Explain by rule the use of each capital in the following examples:—*

Dr. Kane relates many curious facts respecting the Esquimaux. "Lossing's Field Book of the Revolution" gives an interesting account of the surrender of the British army under General Burgoyne, to General Gates, the American commander. He inquired, "For what purpose is this waste?" and I could make no reply. The eye of the Omniscient is ever our guard, and the hand of the Almighty our support. My beauteous deliverer thus uttered her divine instructions: "My name is Religion." In the agony of the moment he exclaimed, "O, I am lost." The Austrians were defeated in the battle of Magenta.

"In colleges in ancient days,
There dwelt a sage called Discipline."

2. *By the preceding rules, correct the erroneous use of capitals in the following examples, and insert them where they should be used:—*

new york is the largest of all american cities. and i heard, but i understood not; then said i, "o my lord, what shall be the end of these things?" huss, the reformer, was a martyr to the cause which he espoused. have you visited the falls of niagara? The auditor has sent in his report. the english custom differs from ours,

"the lightnings flash along the sky,
The thunder bursts and rolls on high;
jehovah's voice, methinks I hear
amid the storm,
as riding on the clouds of even
he spreads his glory o'er the heaven."

but wisdom is justified of her children.

31. Rules for the division of words into Syllables.

1. **RULE I.** Every word has as many syllables as there are distinct vowel sounds heard in a correct pronunciation of it; as, near, nev-er.

(a.) When two vowels come together, they unite (12.) in one syllable, if in the pronunciation only one vowel sound, single or combined (12, 2, 3), is

Rule IX. for capitals. Syllabication. Rule I.

heard; as, *frast*, poorly; otherwise they separate into two syllables; as, *li-on*, *pu-erile*, *coöperate*.

(b.) When the two vowels are the same, the separation is often indicated by a diæresis (··); as, *preëmption*, *coördinate*.

2. RULE II. The consonants, singly or combined (13.), are either prefixed or affixed to the vowels (16, 3, b, c, d), which they modify.

(a.) PRIMITIVE WORDS. (1) A single consonant between two vowels is joined to the latter when the former is long (4); as, *pa-per*, *la-dy*, *ci-pher*; otherwise, it should be joined to the former; as, *lep-er*, *ep-ic*, *ech-o*.

NOTE.—The combinations, *th*, *ch*, *tch*, *ph*, *gh*, *sh*, *ng*, *wh*, should be regarded as single consonants (11, 3), since they represent only one elementary sound, and are never separated when thus used.

(2.) Two consonants between two vowels are separated, except when a mute, and either of the liquids *l* or *r*, follow a long vowel; as, *cas-ter*, *dam-per*, *ap-ple*, *am-ber*; *peo-ple*, *a-cre*, *tri-ple*.

(3.) When three consonants come between two vowels, the last, or the last two—when they are a mute, and either of the liquids *l* or *r*,—must be joined to the latter; as, *emp-ty*, *am-ple*, *strug-gle*.

(b.) DERIVATIVE WORDS. The prefix should be separated from the radical in all cases, except as in Rule II. (1); and the suffix always when it forms a syllable; as, *pre-fix*, *suf-fix*; but *pref-ace*, not *pre-face*; *good-ness*, *tru-ly*.

(c.) COMPOUND WORDS. Compound words are separated into the primitive or derivative words which compose them, and these are divided by the preceding rules.

CAUTION. In writing, never divide a syllable at the end of a line.

ETYMOLOGY.

32. Definitions.

1. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, derivation, and various modifications of words.

2. A word is the sign of an idea, and is either spoken or written.

Syllabication, Rule II. Primitive, derivative, and compound words. Caution. Etymology.

33. Classes of Words.

1. According to their *meaning* and *use*, all words are divided into eight classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

2. All words are divided according to the *number of syllables* they contain, into *monosyllables*, *dissyllables*, *trisyllables*, and *polysyllables*. (18.)

3. Words are divided according to their *formation*, into *primitive*, *derivative*, and *compound*. (20.)

4. A *primitive word* is always a *simple word*.

5. Words which vary their forms in *construction* are called *declinable*. Those which do not vary them are *indeclinable*.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

34. Parts of Speech Defined.

1. In English, there are eight parts of speech—the *Noun*, the *Adjective*, the *Pronoun*, the *Verb*, the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection*.

2. A *noun* is the name of an object; as, *fruit*, *Henry*, *Boston*.

(a.) The noun (from the Latin "*nomen*," a name) embraces a large number of words. All words which are the names of *persons*, *animals*, *places*, or *things*, material or immaterial, are called nouns.

3. An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify a noun; as, *good*, *faithful*, *this*, *some*.

(a.) The adjective (from the Latin "*adjectus*," added to, i. e., to a noun) embraces a large class of words, which are added to nouns to express their qualities, or to define them; as, "*worthy citizens*;" "*this book*." Those words which are united to nouns answering such questions as *What? What kind? How many?* are adjectives.

4. A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun; as, *I*, *he*, *you*, *who*.

(a.) This part of speech (derived from the Latin "*pro*," for, and "*nomen*," a name) embraces but a small number of different words; yet any noun may be represented by a pronoun. It will be seen that these three parts of speech are intimately connected: the first is the name of an object; the second expresses the *properties* of an object; the third may take the place of the first.

5. A *verb* is a word which expresses *being*, *action*, or *state*; as, *be*, *read*, *sleep*, *is loved*.

(a.) Nothing can be affirmed without a verb. It is derived from the Latin

Parts of speech. Noun. Adjective. Pronoun. Verb.

"*verbum*," *the word*, i. e., the important word ; it embraces a large class of words. The different *uses* of the verb, as well as those of the other parts of speech, will be explained hereafter.

6. An *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, *adjective*, *participle*, or another *adverb* ; as, *quickly*, *first*, *far*.

(a.) The adverb (from the Latin "*ad*" and "*verbum*," *added to a verb*) embraces all those words which are added to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, to denote *time*, *place*, *manner*, &c.

7. A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word ; as, *from*, *upon*, *on*, *with*.

(a.) This part of speech includes a small list of words, which are used to denote the relations of *place*, *time*, *cause*, *manner*, *property*, *quality*, &c. It is called a preposition (from the Latin "*præ*," *before*, and "*positio*," *a placing*, *a placing before*) from the circumstance of its being placed before the object with which it is always associated.

8. A *conjunction* is a word used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences ; as, *and*, *but*, *or*.

(a.) The conjunction includes but a small number of words, which are used to join the parts of a sentence ; it is derived from the Latin "*conjunctus*," *joined together*.

9. The *interjection* is used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind ; as, *O ! alas !*

(a.) The term interjection (from the Latin "*interjectus*," *thrown between*) is applied to a few words that do not enter into the structure of a sentence, but may be thrown in at pleasure, to express our feelings.

NOUNS.

35. Definition and Distinctions.

1. A *noun* is the name of an object ; as, *house*, *tree*, *Boston*, *goodness*.

2. The word *object*, as here used, should be carefully distinguished from the same term employed in Syntax, to denote the complement of the transitive verb. It here denotes every species of existence, material or immaterial, which may be considered independently or alone ; and is opposed to the term *attribute*, which always represents something dependent upon, belonging to, or inherent in an object.

3. It will be perceived that the idea of substance or independent existence is the basis of the distinction between the noun and the adjective ; yet it must be remembered that nouns or adjectives are mere

Adverb. Preposition. Conjunction. Interjection. Noun defined. Object. Attribute.

words, so called, because the one denotes a substance, or an object, and the other an attribute.

4. It will be seen, moreover, that an attribute, when regarded as an independent existence, that is, when *abstracted* from the object to which it belongs, becomes an object of itself. The *name* of such an attribute is a noun, and is usually derived from the word denoting the attribute; as, *good*, *good-ness*, *bright*, *bright-ness*.

5. Whenever a word, syllable, letter, or symbol of any kind is spoken of as an object, it must be regarded as a noun; as, "*We* is a personal pronoun." "*Un* is a prefix." "*A* is a vowel." "*+* is the sign of addition." "*,* is a comma."

6. So, again, when a phrase, or a clause of a sentence, is used to denote an object, it becomes a noun; as, "*To see the sun* is pleasant." "*That you have wronged me* doth appear in this."

7. The noun is often called a *substantive*. All phrases or clauses, when used as nouns, and even pronouns, are called *substantives*.

36. Proper and Common Nouns.

1. Nouns are divided into two classes—*proper* and *common*.

2. A *proper* noun is the name of an individual object; as, *James*, *Erie*.

3. A *common* noun is a name which applies to each individual of a class of objects; as, *man*, *boy*, *house*.

4. As a proper noun denotes simply an individual by itself, whenever it is made to represent an individual as belonging to a class, it becomes a common noun; as, "*He* is the *Cicero* of his age," i. e., a distinguished *orator*. Still, when the same name, as *Thomas*, happens to be given to several persons, but to each individually, it is as truly a proper name, as though it had been given to one alone.

5. Common nouns, on the contrary, may become proper, when, by personification, or special use, the object named is regarded as an individual, not belonging to a class; as, "*O Justice*, thou art fled to brutish beasts, and men have lost their reason." "*The Common*." "*The Park*." (See Introduction, Lesson XV.)

6. Under the head of common nouns are commonly reckoned *collective*, *abstract*, and *verbal* nouns.

7. A *collective* noun is one which, in the singular, denotes more than one object; as, *army*, *family*, *flock*.

8. An *abstract* noun is the name of a *quality* or an *action*, considered

An abstract attribute. Symbols and letters used as objects. Substantive. Nouns, proper and common. Collective and abstract nouns.

apart from the object to which it belongs; as, *goodness, virtue, wisdom, movement.*

9. A *verbal noun* is a *participle* used as a noun; as, "He was convicted of *stealing*."

10. The *infinitive* is a kind of verbal noun; as, "To *see* the sun is pleasant."

37. Exercise.

1. *Tell which of the following words designate objects and which properties : then select the nouns :—*

Horse, old, good, peach, vine, heavy, hard, strong, hill, star, empty, ocean, hilly, wright, William, European, engine, road, stile, rose, upright, smoke, balloon, oyster, sea, chariot, wild, hungry.

2. *Select the nouns from the following sentence :—*

As soon as the sun was seen coming over the hills, the farmer aroused the laborers from slumber, who, with their scythes on their shoulders, and pitchforks in their hands, marched gayly to the field to begin the labors of the day.

3. *Tell which of the following nouns are common, and which are proper :—*

Posterity, virtue, Rome, tea, Nero, Cicero, Germany, Paris, pomp, sunshine, meadow, Pekin, gulf, Medici, astronomy, Darius, father, calico, London, dungeon, district, Japan.

4. *Tell which of the following common nouns are abstract, which are collective, which are verbal :—*

Army, tasting, goodness, heat, harmless, rising, sailing, wisdom, flock, wonder, teaching, energy, frankness, freedom, multitude, teething, shutting, dulness, company.

5. *Change the following names of properties into abstract nouns :—*

Good, cheerful, diligent, rapid, dark, strong, heavy, lovely, brilliant, beautiful, flaming, brave, swift, solid, easy. Thus, good *ness*.

6. *Write the names of fifteen objects in this room. Select all the nouns from page — in your Reader. (Let the teacher assign the page.)*

7. *Fill the blanks in the following examples with nouns of your own selection :—*

_____ is short. _____ are strong. _____ have fallen. _____ is a quadruped. _____ were destroyed. _____ will decay. _____ will rise at six o'clock. _____ is the king of beasts. _____ was the father of his country. _____ was a tyrant. _____ were overthrown in the Red Sea. _____ mourned for Absalom. _____ shine at night.

Verbal nouns.

38. Properties of Nouns.

To nouns belong the properties of *person*, *number*, *gender*, and *case*.

39. Person of Nouns.

1. *Person* is that property of a noun or pronoun which shows the relation of the speaker to the object (35, 2) spoken of.

2. The object spoken of may be, (1.) the *speaker himself*, (2.) the person *spoken to*, or (3.) a party neither speaking, nor spoken to, but merely *spoken of*. Hence—

3. There are three persons—the *first*, *second*, and *third*.

4. The *first* person denotes the speaker; as, “*I, John*, saw these things.”

5. The *second* person denotes the person spoken to; as, “*Children*, obey your parents.”

6. The *third* person denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, “*Thomas* did not come.” “The *harvest* is abundant.”

7. *Person*, as a property of the noun or pronoun, should be carefully distinguished from *person*, as used in common language to denote an intelligent being. It denotes, in Grammar, a personal or party relation, that is, the relation of the party *speaking* to the party *spoken of*, whether the latter happen to be the speaker himself, the hearer, or any other object.

8. These relations of person, though truly attributes of the noun, are never indicated by any change of the word, but are properly represented by *personal pronouns*, a class of words made to take the place of nouns for this express purpose.

9. Nouns in the first or second person are never used as the subject or object of a verb, but may be put in apposition with either, for the purpose of explanation; as, “*I, Paul*, beseech you.”

10. The names of inanimate objects are in the second person, when the objects to which they apply are spoken to. Objects thus addressed are personified, and are treated as though they were actual hearers; as, “*And I have loved thee, Ocean*.”

40. Exercise.

1. Tell the person of the nouns in the following sentences:—

Nero was a tyrant. Children, obey your parents. Philip, thou art a

Properties of nouns. Person, first, second, third.

man. Delays are dangerous. His praise, ye brooks, attune. The ferryman took us safely across the river. Keep thy heart with all diligence. King Philip was the last of the Wampanoags. "Let my country be thine," said his preserver. Babylon, how art thou fallen! I, Daniel, was grieved in my spirit.

2. Fill the blanks in the following expressions; tell the person of the noun or pronoun inserted:—

_____ was executed for murder. _____ art the man. The lady lost _____ purse and all _____ contents. _____ are willing to remain. _____ has strangely ended. _____ delight in surf bathing. The father called _____ sons and _____ daughters around _____. The duke was esteemed for _____ uprightness, and the duchess beloved for _____ kindness. Art _____ a spirit of earth or air. _____ wast wrong to urge me so.

41. Number of Nouns.

1. *Number* is that property of a noun (or pronoun) which distinguishes one object from more than one.

2. Nouns have two numbers—the *singular* and the *plural*.

3. The *singular* number denotes but one object; as, *horse, river, nation*.

4. The *plural* denotes more than one object; as, *horses, rivers, nations*. (See Introduction. Lesson XVI.)

42. Regular Formation of the Plural.

1. The plural of nouns is *regularly* formed,—

(a.) By adding *s*, when the singular ends with a sound that can unite or coalesce with *s*; as, *book, books; tree, trees*,—

(b.) By adding *es*, when the singular ends with a sound that cannot coalesce with *s*; as, *box, boxes; church, churches*.

2. When *es* is added, *s* has the sound of *z*; as, *fox, foxes*; when *s* only is added, it has the sound of *z* when it unites or coalesces with a vowel; as, *folio, folios; flea, fleas*. It follows the rule (13, 3) for the combination of consonants, when it follows a consonant; that is, it is *s* aspirate when it unites with an aspirate; as, *hat, hats; cap, caps; surf, surfs; clock, clocks*; it is *s* subvocal (or *z*) when it follows a subvocal; as, *lad, lads; log, logs; ball, balls; farm, farms; fan, fans; war, wars*.

Number. Singular. Plural. Plurals regularly formed. Sound of *s*.
Added syllable.

3. The *s* or *es* adds a syllable when it does not coalesce with the final syllable of the singular; as, *church, church-es*; *race, race-es*; *cage, cage-es*. The *s* or *es* does not add a syllable when it does coalesce with the final syllable; as, *work, works*; *echo, echoes*.

43. Irregular Formation of the Plural.

1. When the final *s*, contrary to the rule (42, 2), is subvocal, after the aspirate sounds *f, fe*, the *f* must be changed (13, 3) into its correlative *v*; as, *loaf, loaves*; *life, lives*; *sheaf, sheaves*; *thief, thieves*. When *s* is aspirate, as in the plural of *dwarf, brief, scarf, reef, chief, grief, kerchief, handkerchief, gulf, surf, turf, serf, proof, hoof, roof, safe, fife, strife*, the *f* is not changed. *Staff*, when meaning a stick, has *staves* for its plural; when meaning a set of officers, it has *staffs*. The plural of *wharf*, in the United States, is *wharves*; in England, *wharfs*.

2. The *s* added to *th* aspirate is also subvocal (except in *truth, youth*, and, it may be, a few others), and would cause a similar change in the orthography of the plural, were not the correlative (6.) also represented by *th*; as, *oath, oaths*; *bath, baths*.

3. Most nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a consonant, add *es*, notwithstanding *s* alone would coalesce with *o* (42, 1); as, *cargo, cargoes*. *Zero, canto, grotto, quarto, junto, duodecimo, octavo, solo, portico, tyro, halo*, add only *s*. Yet by some writers *es* is added. Nouns ending in *o*, preceded by a vowel, follow the general rule; as, *folio, folios*; *cameo, cameos*.

4. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant (25, 4), change *y* into *ies*; as, *glory, glories*; *mercy, mercies*. Formerly, these words in the singular, ended in *ie*; as, *glorie, mercie*; their plurals were then formed regularly. Nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a vowel, form the plural regularly; as, *day, days*; *key, keys*.

5. The following plurals are very irregular; as, *man, men*; *woman, women*; *ox, oxen*; *goose, geese*; *child, children*; *foot, feet*; *louse, lice*; *mouse, mice*; *cow*, formerly *kine*, but now regular, *cows*; *tooth, teeth*.

6. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural, but the two forms have usually different significations; as, *brother, brothers* (of the same family); *brethren* (of the same society); *die, dies* (stamps); *dice* (cubes used in gaming); *genius, geniuses* (men of genius); *genii* (spirits); *index, indexes* (tables of reference); *indices* (signs in algebra); *pea, peas* (distinct seeds); *pease* (quantity); *penry, pennies* (coins); *pence* (a sum, or value).

7. Names of substances, and most abstract nouns, commonly have no plural form; as, *gold, cider, flax, milk, tar, goodness, darkness*. When dif-

Plural irregularly formed. Nouns ending in *f, fe*,—in *th*,—in *o*,—in *y*. *Man, woman, &c. Brother, die-&c. Names of substances.*

ferent *kinds* of the substances are referred to, the plural form is used; as, *waters, wines, teas*.

8. In compound words, if the word denoting the principal idea is placed first, it is changed to form the plural; as, *court-martial, courts-martial; cousin-german, cousins-german; hanger-on, hangers-on*; but if the principal word is placed last, the final word is changed; as, *hand-ful, hand-fuls*; both parts being (apparently) equally prominent are changed in *man-servant, woman-servant, and knight-templar*; as, *men-servants, women-servants, knights-templars*.

9. Letters, marks, figures, and signs are pluralized by adding 's; as, the *s's*; the *i's*; the **'s*; the *9's*; the *+'s*.

10. When other parts of speech are used as nouns, their plurals are formed regularly; as, "The *ifs* and *buts*;" "The *whys* and *wherefores*;" "At *sizes* and *sevens*."

11. Many nouns from foreign languages retain their original plurals; as, *antithesis, antitheses; arcanum, arcana; automaton, automata; axis, axes; bandit, banditti; basis, bases; beau, beaux; cherub, cherubim; criterion, criteria; crisis, crises; datum, data; desideratum, desiderata; encomium, encomia; effluvium, effluvia; erratum, errata; ellipsis, ellipses; focus, foci; formula, formulæ; genus, genera; hypothesis, hypotheses; madame, mesdames; magus, magi; memorandum, memoranda; medium, media; minutia, minutiae; metamorphosis, metamorphoses; monsieur, messieurs; nebula, nebulae; phenomenon, phenomena; radius, radii; seraph, seraphim; stimulus, stimuli; stratum, strata; stamen, stamina; vortex, vortices*.

44. Plural of Proper Names.

1. SINGLE NAMES. The proper name of an individual object, has no plural.

2. When several of the same name or family are spoken of together, the name takes the plural form; as, "The *Tudors*;" "The twelve *Cæsars*."

3. So, also, the proper names of *races, communities, and nations*, are plural; as, "The *Indians*;" "The *Jesuits*;" "The *Romans*."

4. The plurals of proper names are formed, as a general rule, according to the analogy of common names; as, *Canada, Canadas; Jew, Jews; Ptolemy, Ptolemies*.

5. COMPLEX NAMES. When two or more names applied to the same individual, stand in a sort of apposition to each other, they are generally considered as one complex name, and are made plural by varying

Compounds. Letters, marks, &c. Other parts of speech used as nouns.
Nouns from foreign languages. Plural of single proper names,—of complex names.

the last only; as, "*The George Washingtons*;" "May there not be *Sir Isaac Newtons* in every science?"—*Watts*.

6. A TITLE AND A NAME. When a title, as *Miss*, *Mrs.*, *Mr.*, *Gen.*, *Capt.*, or *Dr.*, is prefixed to a proper name, usage has not been uniform in the formation of the plural. Sometimes the *title*, sometimes the *name*, and sometimes *both* have been varied; as, *The Misses Brown*; *The Miss Thompsons*; *The Misses Winthrops*.

7. In all these cases, the relative prominence of the name and title for the most part, determines the plural form. Thus,—

(a.) When the *name* is made prominent, that alone, and not the title, takes the plural form. In speaking of three persons by the *name* of *Brown*, we should say (44, 2) "*The three Browns*;" thus distinguishing them from the *Smiths*, or those of any other name. Now, with this idea uppermost, if we wished also to distinguish them as young ladies, we should add, *incidentally*, the distinctive title,—"*the three Miss Browns*." So, the *Dr. Smiths*.

(b.) When the *title* is to be made prominent, that alone should be varied. Thus, if we should speak of three persons, and say *the three Misses*, we should distinguish them as ladies, from so many gentlemen; in the same way, we say, *the two Drs.*, *the three Generals*. If now, with the title prominent, we would incidentally add the name, we should say, (1.) if the names were *different*, "*the three Misses Brown, Atwood, and Putnam*;" (2.) if the same, "*the three Misses Brown*," and especially so without the numeral; as, "*The Misses Brown*." In the former of these cases, if the *name* were prominent, we should say, "*Miss Brown, Miss Atwood, and Miss Putnam*."

(c.) When two titles are made equally prominent, they are both varied; as, "*The Lords Bishops of Durham and St. David's*;" "*The Knights Barons*" (43, 8). And so it would seem, by the same law, that, when a *title* and a *name* are made equally emphatic, they should both be varied. Thus, the *Misses Winthrop*, in distinction from the *Messrs. Winthrop*; and the *Misses Winthrops*, in distinction from the *Messrs. Mortons*. Yet, usage seems to be nearly uniform in placing the plural name after *Mrs.*; as, "*The Mrs. Whites*;" and the plural title before the names, when persons of different names are mentioned together; as, "*The Misses Wilson and Everett*;" "*Messrs. Little and Brown*."

45. Remarks on the Number of Nouns.

1. NOUNS WITHOUT A PLURAL. Proper nouns, except as in (44, 2, 3), and nouns denoting substance (43, 7), except when different sorts are expressed, have no plural; as, *gold*, *grass*, *wine*.

2. NOUNS WITHOUT THE SINGULAR. The following nouns have no singular: *embers*, *oats*, *scissors*, *vespers*, *literati*, *antipodes*, *ashes*, *clothes*, *billiards*, *ides*, *intestines*, *vitals*, *bellows*, *drawers*, *nippers*, *tongs*, *shears*, &c. *Lungs*, *bowels*, and some others have a singular denoting a part of the whole; as, *lung*, *bowel*.

Plural of a title and a name. Nouns without a plural. Nouns without the singular.

3. The following words are plural in respect to their original form, but singular or plural in respect to their meaning: *alms, amends, news, riches, pains* (meaning *effort*), *odds, wages, molasses, series, suds, corps, measles, tidings, mumps, rickets, nuptials*; as also the names of some of the sciences; as, *mathematics, ethics, optics, statics, mechanics, mnemonics*.

NOTE.—*News* is now regarded as singular; so also *measles* and *molasses*, although they have the plural form.

4. NOUNS EITHER SINGULAR OR PLURAL. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, vermin, hose, fry, trout, salmon, brace, couple, dozen, yoke, gross*.

46. Exercise.

1. Tell which of the following nouns are singular, and which are plural:—

Daughter, day, chairs, watches, apple, pears, stars, oats, coat, nails, inkstand, horn, hearts, hoof, books, bundle, scissors, news, trout, milk, purity, chimneys.

2. Write the plural of the following nouns, and give the rule for the termination:—

Work, example, lady, oak, horse, hope, stratagem, ferry, leaf, storm, bird, bond, thief, sex, day, filly, half, watch, iron, vinegar, turkey, tomato, potato, spoonful, step-father.

3. Tell the singular of the following:—

Heroes, pence, strata, teeth, dies, memoranda, children, mice, hypotheses, messieurs, brethren, scissors, seraphim, axes, snuffers, errata, cherubim, sheep, formulæ, swine, solos, flies, knives, riches, mottoes, octavos, courts-martial, inkstands, indices.

4. Correct the following plurals, and give the rule or remarks for the correction:—

Negros, folioes, vallies, dutys, thieves, yokes, calfs, phenomenons, criterions, mans, turkies, flys, father-in-laws, grottoes, son-in-laws, cups-full, echoes.

47. Gender of Nouns.

1. Gender is a distinction of nouns in regard to sex.

2. There are three genders—the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*.

3. Nouns which denote males are of the *masculine* gender; as, *man, king, hero*.

Nouns plural in form but singular in meaning. Nouns either singular or plural. Gender,—*masculine, feminine, neuter*.

4. Nouns which denote females are of the *feminine* gender; as, *woman, queen, mother*.

5. Nouns which denote neither males nor females are of the *neuter* gender; as, *tree, rock, paper*.

6. Some nouns may denote either males or females; as, *parent, child, cousin*. These are sometimes said to be of the *common* gender; but as the gender of such nouns may generally be determined by the connection, there seems to be no necessity for the distinction. In case the gender is not so determined, such nouns may be called masculine.

7. By a figure of speech, called Personification, the masculine or feminine gender is applied to inanimate objects; thus we say of a ship, "*She* sails well;" of the sun, "*He* rises in the east." The use of this figure imparts peculiar beauty and animation to language. "*Her* flag streams wildly, and *her* fluttering sails pant to be on their flight." "*The* meek-eyed morn appears, *mother* of dews."

8. In speaking of the inferior animals, and sometimes even of infants, the distinction of sex is not observed; as, "And it became a *serpent*, and Moses fled from before *it*." "*The child* was lying in *its* cradle." But in speaking of animals distinguished for boldness, size, or any other marked quality peculiar to the male, we attribute to them the masculine gender, even when the sex is not known; as, "The eagle is the *king* of birds."

9. Collective nouns, if they convey the idea of unity, or take the plural form, are *neuter*; as, "The army, on *its* approach, raised a shout of defiance." But if they convey the idea of plurality without the plural form, they take the gender of the individuals which compose the collection; as, "The jury could not agree upon *their* verdict."

10. When the sexes are distinguished by different words (48, 1), the masculine is used to include both sexes; as, "Jenner conferred a great benefit on *man*."

48. Methods of distinguishing the Sexes.

1. By using different words:—

EXAMPLES. *Bachelor, maid; beau, belle; boar, sow; boy, girl; brother, sister; buck, doe; bull, cow; cock, hen; drake, duck; earl, countess; father, mother; gander, goose; horse, mare; husband, wife; king, queen; lad, lass; lord, lady; male, female; man, woman; nephew, niece; ram, ewe; son, daughter; stag, hind; uncle, aunt; wizard, witch; dog, bitch; monk, nun; hart, roe; master, mistress; Mister, Mistress (Mr., Mrs.); papa, mamma; sir, madam; sloven, slut; steer, heifer; youth, damsel; swain, nymph.*

Gender shown by different words.

(a.) Some masculine nouns have no corresponding feminines; as, *baker, brewer, porter, carrier*; while some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine; as, *laundress, seamstress*.

2. By a difference of termination:—

EXAMPLES. *Abbot, abbess; actor, actress; administrator, administratrix; adulterer, adultress; ambassador, ambassadress; author, authoress; baron, baroness; bridegroom, bride; benefactor, benefactress; count, countess; dauphin, dauphiness; deacon, deaconess; director, directress; duke, duchess; emperor, empress; executor, executrix; governor, governess; heir, heiress; hero, heroine; hunter, huntress; host, hostess; instructor, instructress; Jew, Jewess; landgrave, landgravine; lion, lioness; marquis, marchioness; monitor, monitress; patron, patroness; poet, poetess; priest, priestess; prince, princess; prophet, prophetess; shepherd, shepherdess; testator, testatrix; tiger, tigress; tutor, tutress; widower, widow; god, goddess; giant, giantess; negro, negress; songster, songstress; sorcerer, sorceress; sultan, sultana.*

3. By joining some distinguishing word:—

EXAMPLES. *Landlord, landlady; gentleman, gentlewoman; peacock, peahen; he-goat, she-goat; man-servant, maid-servant; male-child, female-child; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow; grandfather, grandmother; Englishman, Englishwoman; merman, mermaid; schoolmaster, schoolmistress.*

49. Exercise.

1. Tell which of the following nouns are masculine, which feminine, and which neuter:—

Picture, walnut, duchess, Spaniard, letter, sailor, queen, priest, curtain, lioness, nun, captain, widow, wizard, deacon, hospital, banner, brother, countess.

2. Give the feminine gender of the following nouns:—

Man, abbot, horse, hero, tiger, heir, prophet, Jew, male, lord, widower, husband, beau, uncle, host, poet, gander, sultan, master, king, bridegroom, prince, nephew, duke.

3. Give the masculine gender of the following:—

Empress, mother, sister, marchioness, woman, she-goat, electress, witch, doe.

4. Fill the blanks in the following examples; the first five with common nouns in the masculine gender:—

—— is patient. —— loves his sister. —— reigns king of beasts. —— exposes his wares for sale. —— should venerate the old. The next five with proper or common nouns in the feminine gender:

Gender shown by different terminations,—by distinguishing word.

_____ was Queen of England. _____ entertained her guests with grace. _____ was a distinguished poetess. _____ was the nightingale of Sweden. _____ loves her offspring. *The next five with collective nouns, and tell the gender :* _____ met at the house of a friend. _____ brought in a verdict. _____ were appointed by the chair. _____ must obey its leaders. _____ listened with delight.

5. *Select the nouns in the following example ; tell the class, person, number, and gender of each noun :—*

“Thou too sail on, O Ship of State !
Sail on, O Union, strong and great !
Humanity, with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate !
We know what Master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel.”—*Longfellow.*

50. Case of Nouns.

1. *Case* denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words.

2. There are three cases—the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

3. The *nominative* case is the simplest form of the noun, and is commonly used as the subject of a proposition ; as, “*George speaks.*” “*The door was shut.*” (See Introduction, Lesson XIX.)

4. Besides being the subject of a proposition, the *nominative* case may be used, 1st, as the attribute of a proposition ; 2d, it may be used to identify the subject or attribute ; 3d, it may be independent of any other word ; as, 1st, “*Peter was an apostle ;*” “*The stars are suns ;*” 2d, “*Milton, the poet, was blind.*” “*It was John, the beloved disciple ;*” 3d, “*Henry, attend to your studies ;*” “*Mary, are you ready ?*”

5. The *possessive* case denotes the relation of property or possession ; as, “*David’s harp.*”

6. The *possessive singular* of nouns is regularly formed by adding an apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to the *nominative* ; as, *man’s, David’s.*

7. When the plural ends in *s*, the apostrophe only is added ;

Case,—*nominative.* Uses of the *nominative*,—*possessive.* Formation of the *possessive.*

as, *boys'*, *ladies'*. But the (') and *s* are added when it ends in any other letter; as, *men's*, *women's*, *brethren's*.

8. The possessive termination (') in the singular, is evidently a contraction of the Anglo-Saxon or Old English genitive *es* or *is*. The (') in the plural is a modern invention, used to denote the possessive case. In Lord Grey's letter to the Prince of Wales, written the latter part of the twelfth or the first of the thirteenth century, are these expressions,—"Our liege *Lordes* pryve seal;" "The *Kynges* commaundement;" "The *Erles* ground."

9. When the singular ends in *s*, or in a letter or combination of letters having the sound of *s*, and the addition of a syllable would be harsh, the poets and some prose writers add the (') only; as, *Peleus'* son, *goodness'* sake, *conscience'* sake, *Moses'* seat, the *cockatrice'* den.

10. Some difference of opinion prevails among writers respecting the form of the possessive in other cases where the singular ends in *s*, some adding the (') only, and some the (') and *s*. Thus we have *Adams' express*, or *Adams's express*; *Otis' letters*, or *Otis's letters*. The weight of authority is in favor of the additional *s*, whenever the laws of euphony will admit; especially if a syllable is added in pronouncing the word; as, *Bates's Sermons*, *Barnes's Notes*.

11. In nouns whose singular and plural are alike (45, 4) the apostrophe should precede the *s* in the singular, and follow it in the plural; as, *deer's*, *deers'*; *sheep's*, *sheeps'*.

12. For the sound of the apostrophic *s*, and the increase of syllables, see (42, 2, 3).

13. The use of the apostrophe and *s* to mark the plural of letters and signs (43, 9), has no connection with case.

14. When a noun follows a transitive verb or a preposition, it is in the *objective* case; as, "Thomas opened his *knife*." "The bird sat on the *tree*."

15. The nominative case answers the question *Who?* or *What?* as, "*Who* writes?" "*John* writes." "*What* alarms him?" "The *storm* alarms him." The *possessive* case answers the question *Whose?* as, "*Whose* book have you?" "I have my *brother's* book." The *objective* case answers the question *Whom?* or *What?* as, "*Whom* do you see?" "I see the *captain*." "On *what* does he stand?" "He stands upon the *deck*."

16. The possessive case may be known by its form. But the forms of the nominative and the objective are alike; hence they must be determined by their relation to other words.

Origin of (') Objective case. Questions answered by each case.

51. Declension of Nouns.

The *declension* of a noun is its variation to denote number and case.

EXAMPLES.

1. BOY.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Boy,	Boys,
<i>Pos.</i>	Boy's,	Boys',
<i>Obj.</i>	Boy,	Boys.

2. FLY.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Fly,	Flies,
<i>Pos.</i>	Fly's,	Flies',
<i>Obj.</i>	Fly,	Flies.

3. JOHN.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	John,	Wanting.
<i>Pos.</i>	John's,	_____
<i>Obj.</i>	John,	_____

4. GOODNESS.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Goodness,	Wanting.
<i>Pos.</i>	Goodness',	_____
<i>Obj.</i>	Goodness,	_____

52. Exercise.

1. Put the following nouns in *Italics* into the possessive case, and let each expression be written on your slates, thus :—

The carpenter axe. The carpenter's axe.

Abraham son. David harp. Moses law. Adams Arithmetic. Webster Dictionary. The coachman dog barked at the herdsman sheep. The lion roar aroused the shepherd dog. The farmer corn was destroyed by his neighbor cow.

Declension of nouns.

2. Give the rule for forming the possessive case.

3. Write the following nouns in the possessive plural, and place some appropriate noun after them, thus :—

‘The tailors’ shears.’ “The men’s apartment.”

Tailor, seaman, captain, doctor, brother, valley, folly, alley, ally, hero, arch, child, director, president, sheep.

53. Parsing.

1. *Parsing* consists,—

- (1.) In telling the *part of speech*.
- (2.) In telling its *properties* or *accidents*.
- (3.) In pointing out its *relation* to other words, and giving the *rule* for its construction.

2. In parsing a *noun*,—

- (1.) Say it is a *noun*, and why.
- (2.) *Common* or *proper*, and why.
- (3.) Of the 1st, 2d, or 3d *person*, and why.
- (4.) Of the *singular* or *plural number*, and why.
- (5.) Of the *masculine*, *feminine*, or *neuter gender*, and why.
- (6.) Of the *nominative*, *possessive* or *objective case*, and why.
- (7.) The *rule* for construction.

NOTE.—The pupil who has been thoroughly drilled in the Introduction, may be able to introduce this third element of parsing, if the teacher choose. The Rules of Syntax will of course be anticipated, if applied here. The teacher can omit or use the rules, as he may think best.

54. Exercise.

MODELS FOR PARSING NOUNS.

1. *Washington, the successful general, was also a true patriot.*

Washington . is a *noun*,—it is the name of an object ; *proper*,—it is the name of an individual object ; *third person*,—it denotes the person spoken of ; *singular number*,—it denotes but one ; *masculine gender*,—it denotes a male ; *nominative case*,—it is the subject of the proposition “ Washington was a patriot,” according to Rule I. : “ A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a proposition, must be in the nominative case.”

Outlines for parsing. Models for parsing.

General . . . is a noun (why?); common (why?); third person (why?); singular number (why?); masculine gender (why?); nominative case, and is put in apposition with *Washington*. Rule VI.: "A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case."

Patriot is a noun (why?); common (why?); third person (why?); singular number (why?); masculine gender (why?); nominative case (why?); it is used as the attribute of the proposition, "*Washington was a patriot.*" Rule II.: "A noun or pronoun used as the attribute of a proposition, must be in the nominative case."

2. *John, bring me Fanny's History, that book lying on the desk.*

John . . . is a proper noun, second person, singular number, masculine gender, and nominative case independent. Rule X.: "The nominative case independent, and the interjection, have no grammatical relation to the rest of the sentence."

Fanny's . is a proper noun, third person, singular number, feminine gender, possessive case (why?) and limits *History*. Rule VII.: "A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting possession, must be in the possessive case."

History . is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and is the object of *bring*. Rule VIII.: "A noun or pronoun, used as the object of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case."

Book . . . is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and is put in apposition with *History*. Rule VI.

Desk . . . is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and is the object of the preposition *on*. Rule XIV.: "A noun or pronoun, used as the object of a preposition, must be in the objective case."

8. *Select the nouns in the following examples, and parse them according to the forms given above:—*

The first land discovered by Columbus, was an island, to which he gave the name of San Salvador. King Agrippa, believest thou the prophets? In truth, the proper rest for man, is change of occupation.

In autumn, there is no sudden blight of youth and beauty; no sweet hopes of life are blasted, no generous aim at usefulness and advancing

virtue cut short. The year is drawing to its natural term, the seasons have run their usual course; all their blessings have been enjoyed, and all our precious things are cared for.—*Cooper*.

One moment I looked from the hill's gentle slope,
All hushed was the billow's commotion,
And methought that the light-house looked lovely as Hope,
That star on life's tremulous ocean.—*Moore*.

Land of the beautiful and brave,
The freeman's home, the martyr's grave,
The nursery of giant men,
Whose deeds are linked with every glen!
My own green land for ever!—*Whittier*.

4. Let the whole class parse these or other words on the slate, thus:—

Washington, is N. p. 3d. s. m. nom. R. I.

Fanny's is N. p. 3d. s. f. pos. R. VII.

Desk is N. c. 3d. s. n. obj. R. XIV.

ADJECTIVES.

55. Definitions.

1. An *adjective* is a word used to limit or qualify a noun; as, "a good school;" "a diligent boy;" "this table;" "ten men;" "the box."

2. All words which have the construction of the adjective are here considered under the head of adjectives. The article, like the adjective, belongs to the noun; it has the same construction as the adjective, and is hence placed among adjectives.

3. Every *adjective* is a dependent or subordinate word, and must belong to some noun or pronoun as its principal.

4. When the noun or pronoun to which the adjective belongs has been previously used in the same sentence, or is some indefinite word, as, *person*, *some one*, or *some thing*, it may be omitted; as, "I will give you *this* book, if you will give me *that* [book]." "The kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and the *violent* [persons] take it by force."

5. An adjective belonging to a noun understood, or omitted, takes the place of the latter, and is said to be an *adjective used as a noun*.

Adjectives defined. Adjective a dependent word. Adjectives used as nouns.

56. Classes of Adjectives.

1. *Adjectives* are divided into two classes—*limiting* and *qualifying*.

2. A *limiting* adjective is used to *define* or *restrict* the meaning of a noun, without expressing any of its qualities; as, “*the* house;” “*five* books;” “*this* pen.”

3. *Limiting* adjectives are divided into three classes—*articles*, *pronominal adjectives*, and *numeral adjectives*.

57. Articles.

1. The particular limiting adjectives, *the*, and *a* or *an*, are called *articles*.

2. *The* is called the *definite* article, because it points out some particular thing; as, “*the* desk;” “*the* sun.”

3. *A* or *an* is called an *indefinite* article, because it does not point out any particular thing; as, “*a* pen;” “*an* orchard.”

4. *An* is used before a vowel sound, and *a* before a consonant sound; as, “*an* apple;” “*a* pin;” “*an* hour;” “*a* union;” “*an* honor.”

5. Although the article is intimately connected with the limitation of nouns, it is to be regarded rather as the *sign* of limitation than as itself a limiting word. When one says, “*The* man,” *the* gives notice to the hearer that some particular man is regarded in the mind of the speaker. He will point out, by limiting or individualizing, who that particular man is. *A*, or *an*, again, is a *sign* that the speaker, in regarding a multitude of objects, of the same kind, thinks of one, but no specific or particular one. The noun may be limited to show what class or description of objects is meant, but not to show any particular individual.

6. *A*, or *an*, however, may be said to limit whenever it prevents a noun from being used in its widest sense; as, *man* = the whole human race; *a* man = one man, but no particular one. *The*, again, may be said to extend the meaning of a noun in the singular, when it is used in such examples as these: “*The* horse” = all horses. “*The* dog,” &c.

7. The article has the construction of the limiting adjective, and is to be parsed like it.

Adjectives limiting and qualifying. Articles,—definite—~~indefinite~~. *An* before a vowel. *A* before a consonant.

58. Exercise.

1. Point out the articles in the following examples ; tell which are definite and which are indefinite :—

The hat, a book, a knife, a box, an heir, an ox, a plough, an orchard, an industrious man, an honest man, a good citizen, a hill, a huge round stone, the enemy, the union, the ewe, a university.

59. Pronominal Adjectives.

1. Those limiting adjectives which may, without the use of the article, represent a noun when understood, are called *pronominal adjectives* ; as, “ *That* (book) is his ; *this* is yours.”

2. The principal pronominal adjectives are, *this, that, these, those, former, latter, which, what, each, every, either, neither, some, one, none, any, all, such, much, both, few, fewer, fewest, first, last, little, less, least, many, more, most, own, same, several, sundry, enough.*

3. When such adjectives represent a noun understood, they are generally called *pronouns*. They may more properly be called *limiting adjectives* (*pronominal adjectives*), used as nouns ; as, “ *This* is my book.” The articles never represent a noun understood.

4. Qualifying adjectives may also represent a noun when understood, but the article must be prefixed ; as, “ *The good* are happy.”

5. *All* is sometimes a noun ; as, “ He robbed me of my house, my goods, my home, my *all*.” *Both* is frequently a conjunction ; as, “ I *both* saw and heard him.”

6. *Each, every, either, neither*, are used *distributively*. *This* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*, are used *demonstratively*. *None, any, all, such, whole, some, both, one, other, another*, are used *indefinitely*.

7. *These, those, all, many, both, few, fewer, fewest, several, sundry*, usually require a noun in the plural ; as, “ *These days* ; ” “ *Those plants*.”

8. *Either* and *neither* are used with reference to two things only. When more than two objects are referred to, *any* and *none* should be used.

9. *One* and *other* are declined thus :

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>		<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	One,	Ones,	<i>Nom.</i>	Other,	Others,
<i>Pos.</i>	One's,	Ones',	<i>Pos.</i>	Other's,	Others',
<i>Obj.</i>	One ;	Ones.	<i>Obj.</i>	Other ;	Others.

Pronominal adjectives used as nouns. Qualifying adjectives used as nouns. All and both. Each, every, &c. This, that. None, any, &c. Either and Neither. One and other declined.

60. Exercise.

1. *Point out the pronominal adjectives in the following sentences :—*

This rule is preferable to that. These scholars are more studious than those. The former plan has yielded to the latter. Each exercise was well written. Every accused one was acquitted. The first method is better than the last. Many of our hopes are blasted. Few men are of the same mind. Much remains to be said upon all these points. Our own wishes must often be yielded to those of others. More were present than were expected. Little hope was entertained of his recovery. Neither remark was just. The same course was pursued by several of the members. Much harm arises from imprudence. "Unto me, who am less than the least of all saints."

61. Numeral Adjectives.

1. *Numeral adjectives are those which express number ; as, one, two, three, first, second, &c.*

2. Numeral adjectives are divided into, *Cardinal*, which denote *how many* ; as, *one, two, three, &c.* ; *Ordinal*, which show *which one of a series* ; as, *first, second, third* ; *multiplicative*, which show repetition ; as, *twice, or twofold, thrice, or threefold, &c.*

3. When a numeral is used as a noun, the cardinal, like the pronominal adjective, takes no article ; while the ordinal has the article prefixed ; as, "*Two only were present ;*" "*The third was lost.*"

62. Exercise.

1. *Apply cardinal numbers to the following nouns ; change them to the plural, if necessary :—*

Peach, berry, box, match, cork, shoe, penny, mouse, goose, woman, court-martial, tooth, brother-in-law, handfuls, stratum, index, stamen, cherub, phenomenon.

2. *Correct the following plurals, and apply to each any numeral greater than one or first :—*

Oxes, calfs, sheeps, deers, geeses, 9s, 7s, fs, cherubims, seraphims, swines, vallies, loafes, chimnies, journies, studys, commander-in-chiefs, heros, soloes, grottoes, ladys.

63. Qualifying Adjectives.

1. A *qualifying* adjective is one which limits the meaning of a

Numerals. Classes of numerals. Qualifying adjectives.

noun, by denoting some *property* or *quality*; as, “a *virtuous* man;” “a *running* horse.” To this class of adjectives belong the participles, which have the *signification* of the verb and the *construction* of the adjective.

2. When the participle is placed before the noun which it modifies, it is called a *participial adjective*; as, “The *rising* sun.” When it is placed after the noun, and is itself limited by other words, it is parsed as a participle; as, “The sun *rising* in the east.”

3. When a qualifying adjective represents an object understood, either definite or indefinite, the article *the* must be placed before it; as, “The wise [persons]; the benevolent [ones]; the beautiful, the good, and the true.” When the quality is used abstractly, the adjective undergoes a change in its termination; as, Wise, *wisdom*; beautiful, *beauty*.

64. Comparison of Adjectives.

1. When different objects are compared with each other, the adjective expressing the quality by means of which they are compared, undergoes a change, called *comparison*.

2. There are three degrees of comparison—the *positive*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

3. The *positive* simply denotes a quality without comparison; as, *righteous*, *pleasant*.

4. The *comparative* shows that one of two contrasted objects possesses a quality in a higher degree than the other; as, “This tree is *taller* than that.”

5. The *superlative* shows that one of several objects referred to, possesses a quality in the highest degree, when compared with all the rest; as, “That pine is the *tallest* tree in the grove.”

6. The comparative and superlative degrees are not used, as many suppose, to express increase or diminution of the quality denoted by the positive.

7. The comparative degree implies that *two* objects are considered together with respect to a quality common to both, and it shows that one possesses more or less of that quality than the other. In either case, by itself alone, the quality would be put in the positive. Thus, A is *large*, and B is *large*; but A is *larger* than B, or A is the *larger* of

Participial adjectives. Qualifying adjectives with noun understood. Degrees of comparison,—positive—comparative—superlative.

the two. When the two compared objects possess the quality in equal degrees, the comparison is expressed by *as*—*as* thus ; A is *as large as* B.

8. The superlative degree implies that *several* (sometimes only two) objects are considered together with respect to a common quality, and that *one*, or *one set* exceeds all the others with which it is compared, in respect to that quality ; yet when spoken of without comparison, the quality would be in the positive. Thus, in a group of trees, one is *tall*, but when compared with the rest, it is the *tallest* of all.

65. Formation of the Comparative and Superlative.

1. The comparative of monosyllables is regularly formed by adding *r* or *er*, and the superlative by adding *st* or *est*, to the positive ; as, *wise, wiser, wisest ; bold, bolder, boldest*.

2. The comparative of most adjectives of more than one syllable is formed by prefixing *more* or *less*, and the superlative by prefixing *most* or *least*, to the positive ; as, *industrious, more industrious, most industrious*.

3. The following adjectives are compared irregularly : *Good, better, best ; bad, worse, worst ; ill, worse, worst ; little, less [or lesser], least ; much, more, most ; many, more, most ; far, farther, farthest, farmost, farthestmost ; near, nearer, nearest or next ; late, later, latest or last ; old, older or elder, oldest or eldest*.

4. Adjectives terminating in *ish* indicate the possession of a quality in a lower degree than the positive ; as, *bluish*, approaching in color to *blue*.

5. The meaning of the positive is also varied by the addition of such adverbs as *somewhat, rather, slightly, a little, too, very, greatly, exceedingly*, &c. ; that of the comparative and superlative by such words as *much, far, vastly, altogether, by far*, &c.

6. Several adjectives in the superlative degree are formed by adding *most* to *up, upper, nether, in, inner, kind, hinder, out* (contracted to *ut*), *outer, further, hither, top, bottom* ; as, *upmost, uppermost, nethermost*, &c.

7. Adjectives derived from proper names, numerals, pronominal adjectives, and such as refer to position, material, and form, are seldom, if ever, compared.

8. Many adjectives denoting *place* or *situation*, are deficient in some of the degrees ; thus, *further, furthermost* or *furthest, hither, hithermost*,

Comparatives and superlatives of monosyllables—of words of more than one syllable. Adjectives compared irregularly. Adjectives in *ish*. The positive varied by adverbs. Adjectives not compared. Deficient comparison.

nether, nethermost, under, undermost, want the positive. *Northern, northernmost; rear, rearmost*, and others, want the comparative.

66. Exercise.

1. *Tell which of the following words are adjectives :—*

Ice, cold, soft, water, this, little, chair, knob, arise, brave, diligent, inkstand, lamp, many, former, light, white, match, rough.

2. *Tell which of the following adjectives are limiting, and which are qualifying :—*

Strong, twenty, faithful, green, this, first, an, old, former, yellow, every, such, wonderful, timid, sweet, any, fifth, the, soft, those, pure, ripe, tough.

3. *Tell which of the following adjectives are of the positive, which of the comparative, and which of the superlative degree :—*

Braver, more acceptable, eldest, less useful, worst, better, most honorable, strongest, sadder, more plentiful, least worthy, last, good.

4. *Compare the following adjectives :—*

Bright, active, handsome, wise, sad, able, just, diligent, beautiful, good, excellent, dutiful, little, serene, fruitful, large, warm, lovely.

5. *Apply limiting adjectives to five common nouns; qualifying adjectives in the positive degree to five common nouns, of the masculine gender; qualifying adjectives, in the comparative degree, to five common nouns in the feminine gender; qualifying adjectives, in the superlative degree, to five nouns in the neuter gender, plural number.*

67. Models for Parsing.

1. In parsing an adjective,—

- (1.) Tell what part of speech it is. Why?
- (2.) Tell what kind of adjective. Why?
- (3.) Compare it, and give the degree (if a qualifying adjective).
- (4.) Tell to what noun it belongs.
- (5.) Give the rule.

2. “The faithful man will be rewarded.”

Faithful is an adjective; it is used to limit or qualify a noun; *qualifying*,—it denotes quality; *compared*; positive *faithful*, comparative *more faithful*, superlative *most faithful*; in the positive degree, and belongs to *man*, according to Rule V. “An adjective or a participle must belong to some noun or pronoun.”

3. "Her house is *larger* than mine."

Larger . is an *adjective* (why ?) ; *qualifying* (why ?) ; *compared* ; positive *large*, comparative *larger*, superlative *largest* ; in the *comparative* degree ; it shows that one of two objects has a higher degree of the quality than the other ; and belongs to *house*, according to Rule V.

4. "She is *worthy* of the highest praise."

Worthy . is an *adjective* (why ?) ; *qualifying* (why ?) ; *compared*, *worthy*, *worthier*, *worthiest* ; positive degree, and belongs to *she*. Rule V.

Highest . is an *adjective* (why ?) ; *qualifying* (why ?) ; *compared* ; positive *high*, comparative *higher*, superlative *highest* ; in the *superlative* degree ; it shows the highest degree of the quality ; and belongs to *praise*, according to Rule V.

The . . . is a definite article (why ?), and as a limiting adjective it belongs to *praise*, according to Rule V.

5. "Three birds were killed."

Three . . is a *numeral adjective* (why ?) ; *limiting* (why ?) ; it belongs to *birds*, according to Rule V.

6. Give me *this* apple, and I will give you *that*."

This . . is a *pronominal adjective*, *singular number* (59, 6), and limits *apple*, according to Rule V.

That . . is a *pronominal adjective* ; *singular number*, and is used to limit the noun *apple*, understood ;—or it is used as a *noun*, instead of *apple*, in the *third person*, *singular number*, *neuter gender*, and *objective case*, and is the object of the verb *give*, according to Rule VIII.

7. "The kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and *the violent* take it by force."

Violent . is an *adjective* ; it belongs to *persons*, understood ; or it is used as a *noun*, of the *third person*, *plural number*, *masculine gender*, *nominative case*, and is the subject of the proposition "*the violent take*," according to Rule I.

8. Point out the ADJECTIVES in the following examples, and parse them according to the above forms :—

The passionate are like men standing on their heads ; they see all things the wrong way.

There are two ways of arriving at the highest personal liberty ; one is to have few wants, and the other to have abundant means of satisfying them.

Shining characters are not always the most agreeable.

Mental pleasures never cloy ; unlike those of the body, they are increased by repetition.

Stone walls do not a prison make,
Nor iron bars a cage.
Minds innocent and quiet take
That for a hermitage.

9. *Parse the NOUNS and ADJECTIVES in the following examples :—*

Rarely in public office,—he (Rufus Choate) was still a public man in the largest sense ; all were proud of him. The old honored him, the young loved him, and both old and young admired him.

How sweetly come the holy psalms
From saints and martyrs down,—
The waving of triumphal palms
Above the thorny crown !
The choral praise, the chanted prayers
From harps by angels strung,
The hunted Cameron's mountain airs,
The hymns that Luther sung !—*Whittier.*

PRONOUNS.

68. Definitions and Distinctions.

A *pronoun* is a word which takes the place of a noun ; as, "The farmer ploughs *his* field ; *he* reaps *his* wheat, and gathers it into *his* barn."

1. The mere fact that a pronoun is employed *instead of* a noun, is by no means indicative of its principal use. A noun is used *primarily* to denote an object, and *incidentally*, to represent its relation of person, number, gender, or case. A pronoun, on the contrary, is used, *primarily*, to represent some relation of an object ; and to do this, it must, of necessity, represent the object itself.

2. These relations which the pronoun represents, may be,—

(a.) That of the *object* to the *speaker* ; and as the object may be either the

A pronoun. Its primary use. The relation of an object (1.) to the speaker.

speaker himself, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of, there may be three of these relations, called the *first*, *second*, and *third persons* (39, 8. See also Introduction, Lesson XVIII.). Hence, to represent them, we have the pronouns *I*, *thou*, and *he*, *she*, *it*; and hence, too, the name *personal*.

(b.) That of the *object* to some modifying *circumstance*; as, "A fortress *which* stands on a hill is a conspicuous object." Here we employ the pronoun *which*, incidentally to denote the object *fortress*, but *chiefly* to show that the circumstance of its position is what renders it conspicuous. Hence the pronouns *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*; and hence, too, the name *relative*.

(c.) That of an unknown *object* to the speaker as an *inquirer*; here, again, the object is *incidentally* represented by the pronoun (its name being unknown), and that for the special purpose of making it a subject of *inquiry*. Hence, we have *Who?* *Which?* and *What?* and the name *interrogative*.

3. The personal pronouns of the third person, and all the relative pronouns, are employed when an object is supposed to be not only *known*, but *previously mentioned*. The personal pronouns of the first and second persons, are used when the object is *known* (by its presence), but not (necessarily) *previously mentioned*. The interrogative pronouns are used when the object is neither *known*, nor has been *previously mentioned*.

4. The noun for which a pronoun stands is called the *antecedent*; as, "The world in *which* they are placed, opens with all its wonders upon their eyes." The antecedent may be a phrase or an entire proposition; as, "To believe *the report*, *which* is the thing you desire, would be offensive to one of the noblest of men." "*The servant opened the window which* was strictly forbidden." The term *antecedent*, however, means something more than the noun which the pronoun represents; it denotes the leading term of a relation, and implies a subsequent term. Hence it is more especially used in case of a relative pronoun, which is employed to show a relation between its antecedent noun, and some following circumstance. (See 2. (b.) above).

5. The object represented by the personal pronouns of the first and second persons, is always supposed to be present, and, consequently, the antecedent noun is seldom given; that of the third person is usually expressed. Sometimes, however, a personal or an interrogative pronoun is employed without an antecedent, and so limited by a relative and its clause, as to give to the whole the effect of a single name; as, "*He who sways the minds of men by his eloquence*," i. e., *the orator*, "exerts the highest human power." "*Who, that marks the fire still sparkling in each eye*, but would deem their bosoms burned anew?" Sometimes the antecedent pronoun, in such cases, is omitted, or included in the relative; as, "*Who* would be free, themselves must strike the blow," that is, *they who*. "*Who* steals my purse steals trash," that is, *he who*.

(2.) To some circumstance, (3.) to an inquirer. The pronouns used for an object known, mentioned, &c. Antecedent expressed or implied.

6. The pronoun stands not merely for a noun, but for a noun in its syntactical relation, and also as restricted by modifying words; as, "We saw the little deformed boy who watched at the gate, and pitied him," i. e., *the little deformed boy who watched at the gate.*

7. The antecedent, as the term indicates, is something *going before*; but as an interrogative pronoun inquires for an object as yet unknown, the antecedent cannot be a preceding noun. The pronoun, therefore, must agree in person, number, and gender, not necessarily with the noun in the answer—the *subsequent*,—but with a noun which the speaker conceived to be the name of the object (however erroneous it might be) when he uttered the question; as, "*Who* is there?" Ans. "*A horse.*" Here *who* evidently refers to *person*, being equivalent to *what person*. It would have been *what*, had the speaker known the character of the object inquired for.

69. Classes of Pronouns.

1. Pronouns are divided into three classes,—*personal*, *relative*, and *interrogative*.

2. To these classes some grammarians add *adjective pronouns*. It is true that certain limiting adjectives may take the place of nouns; as, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *each*, *all*, &c. So, any qualifying adjective, preceded by an article, may stand for a noun in the same way; as, *The good*, *the wise*, *the prudent*; but a noun, in both cases, is properly understood. Hence they should be disposed of alike, that is, as adjectives used as nouns.

3. To pronouns, like nouns, belong *Person*, *Number*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

70. Personal Pronouns.

1. A *personal* pronoun is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the *first*, *second*, or *third* person.

2. *I* (plural *we*) is of the *first* person; *thou* (plural *ye* or *you*) is of the *second* person; *he*, *she*, and *it* (plural *they*) are of the *third* person, masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively.

3. The personal pronouns of the first and second person represent the speaker or the hearer. The gender is supposed to be known, and is not

Pronouns classified. Properties of pronouns. Personal pronouns—1st, 2d, & 3d persons.

indicated by the form of the pronoun, while that of the third person is represented by one of the forms, *he, she, or it*.

4. *It* is often used in a vague sense, as the subject of verbs descriptive of the weather; as, "It rains." "It thunders." It is used as an expletive, (1.) as the object of a verb; as, "Come and trip *it* as you go;" (2.) to introduce a sentence whose subject is placed after the predicate. "*It* is pleasant to see the sun." "*It* has been ascertained, *that water is composed of oxygen and hydrogen.*" It is used as subject to represent a noun or pronoun as attribute, of any number, gender, or person; as, "It is *I*." "It is *they*." "It is *James*." "It is *she*."

5. Formerly, *thou* was used in addressing a single individual, and a corresponding form of the verb was used; as, "Thou singest;" but gradually *you* has come to take its place, till the use of *thou*, except in the solemn style, is now wholly discontinued. *You*, therefore, is both singular and plural in its application, but the verb does not change its form; it invariably takes the plural form; as, "You (meaning one) write," not *writest*.

6. The compound personal pronouns are, first person, *myself* (plural *ourselves*); second person, *thyself* (plural *yourselves*); third person (masculine) *himself*, (feminine) *herself*, (neuter) *itself*, (plural *themselves*).

7. The compound personal pronouns are seldom, if ever, used as the subject of a proposition, though they may be used in apposition with it; as, "He *himself* knows not whereof he affirms." When used as the object of a transitive verb, they are called *reflexive*, because the act of the agent falls back upon himself; as, "The boy struck *himself*."

71. Exercise.

1. *Substitute the nouns and their modifying words for the pronouns in the following sentences:—*

At this time, the commander of the American forces and *his* army took post at Harlem; *he* now sought to ascertain the state of *his* enemy's forces on Long Island. Captain Nathan Hale volunteered *his* services; *he* entered the British army in disguise. On *his* return, *he* was apprehended and sent to the cruel Marshal Cunningham, by *whom* *he* was ordered to execution without a trial.

Edward carelessly lost his books on his way to school; he tried to excuse himself to his teacher for his deficiency in his lessons, but *she* required him to prepare them after school, and recite them to her.

Uses of "it"—of "thou." Compound personal pronouns.

72. Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

1. The personal pronouns are thus declined :—

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I,	We,
<i>Pos.</i>	My or mine,	Our or ours,
<i>Obj.</i>	Me,	Us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thou,	Ye or you,
<i>Pos.</i>	Thy or thine,	Your or yours
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee,	You.

THIRD PERSON. Masculine.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He,	They,
<i>Pos.</i>	His,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Him,	Them.

THIRD PERSON. Feminine.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	She,	They,
<i>Pos.</i>	Her or hers,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Her,	Them.

THIRD PERSON. Neuter.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	It,	They,
<i>Pos.</i>	Its,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	It,	Them.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself,	Ourselves,
<i>Pos.</i>	—	—
<i>Obj.</i>	Myself,	Ourselves.

Declension of I, THOU, HE, SHE, IT. MYSELF.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Thyself,	Yourselves,
<i>Pos.</i>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<i>Obj.</i>	Thyself,	Yourselves.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Plu.</i>
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	Himself,	Herself,	Itself,
<i>Pos.</i>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
<i>Obj.</i>	Himself,	Herself,	Itself,
			Themselves.

2. Of the possessives, *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used when the noun is expressed; *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* (in modern style), when it is understood, and the latter must be changed to the former whenever the noun is supplied. "That book is *yours*; this is *mine*." "That book is *your* book; this is *my* book."

3. When *mine*, *thine*, &c., are used as in the above example, they seem to perform a double office; first, to represent the speaker, hearer, or person spoken of, as a possessor; and, secondly, like other limiting or qualifying words, when the noun is understood, to represent or stand for that noun, not as a pronoun does, but as an adjective (69, 2). Thus we say, "*This* [book] is an arithmetic; *that* [book] is a geography." "*The violent* [persons] take it by force." "*Mine* [my task] was an easy task." Properly, neither of the above words is a noun. The first three are adjectives used to limit the noun understood, which follows them, and the last a personal pronoun in the possessive case, used to limit the noun *task*, understood. If it is proper to say that *this*, *that*, or *violent* are used as nouns, it is equally so of the word *mine*, not in its pronominal, but in its adjective office. It is, then, strictly, a pronoun in the possessive, governed by some noun understood; but may, like an adjective, be parsed as that noun, in the nominative or the objective case.

73. Exercise.

1. In parsing a pronoun,—

- (1.) Tell what part of speech it is. Why?
- (2.) Tell what kind of pronoun. Why?
- (3.) Tell what its antecedent is. Why?
- (4.) Decline it.
- (5.) Give the person, number, gender. Why?

Declension of **THYSELF**. **HIMSELF**, &c. The possessives *my*, *thy*, *mine*, *thine*, &c.

(6.) Rule for person, number, gender. Why?

(7.) Case and construction.

(8.) Rule for construction.

NOTE.—In parsing, let the pupil follow this order, and as soon as possible, without any question from the teacher. The pronoun is parsed very much like the noun.

2. Study the following models for parsing:—

“David brought *his* book, and laid *it* on the table.”

His is a pronoun; it takes the place of a noun; *personal*; it is used both to represent a noun, and to show whether it is of the first, second, or third person; it refers to *David's* for its antecedent; (singular, nominative *he*, possessive *his*, objective *him*; plural, nominative *they*, possessive *their* or *theirs*, objective *them*;) it is of the *third person*, *singular number*, *masculine gender*, because its antecedent is; (Rule III.: “A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in *gender*, *number*, and *person*;) *possessive case*, and is used to limit *book*, by denoting possession, according to Rule VII. (Repeat it.)

It is a pronoun (why?); *personal* (why?); it has *book* for its antecedent; (decline it); it is of the *third person*, *singular number*, *neuter gender*, because its antecedent *book* is (Rule III.), *objective case*, and is the object of *laid*: Rule VIII. (Repeat the rule.)

“The messenger *himself* revealed the treachery.”

Himself is a pronoun (why?); *compound*, composed of *him* and *self*; it has *messenger* for its antecedent; *third person*, *singular number*, *masculine gender*, because its antecedent is (Rule III.), *nominative case*, and used to identify or explain *messenger*, according to Rule VI.

3. Parse the PERSONAL PRONOUNS in the following sentences:

Can it be that America, under such circumstances, can betray herself! that she is to be added to the catalogue of republics, the inscription upon whose ruins is, “They were, but they are not!” Forbid it, my countrymen! forbid it, heaven!—*Story*.

It is a noble faculty of our nature which enables us to connect our thoughts, our sympathies, and our happiness, with what is distant in place or time.—*Webster*.

His praise, ye winds that from five quarters blow,
Breathe soft or loud; and wave your tops, ye pines.—*Milton*.

Love took up the glass of Time, and turned it in his glowing hands,
Every moment, lightly shaken, ran itself in golden sands.—*Tennyson*.

Models for parsing pronouns.

4. Give the class, person, number, gender (when it can be determined by the form), and case of the following pronouns :—

I, he, his, hers, mine, you, thou, they, them, us, we, myself, himself, they, herself, me, themselves, ourselves, my, thee, your, thine, herself, yourselves.

74. Relative Pronouns.

1. A *relative* pronoun is used both to represent a preceding noun or pronoun, called the *antecedent*, and to connect with it a dependent proposition; as, "Those *who* wish for favors must assist others."

2. The relative pronoun, when used only as such, follows the antecedent; as, "All *that* I have is yours;" when used both as a limiting adjective and a pronoun, it always precedes it; as, "I will give you *what* money I have."

3. The following distinctions will show the difference between a relative and a personal pronoun :—

(a.) The relative refers to an object always known, and either previously mentioned, or so clearly implied as to need no mention; the personal pronouns refer always to an object known, and in the third person, to an object previously mentioned, but in the first and second persons, to an object not previously mentioned.

(b.) The personal pronouns have a distinct form for each grammatical person; *I* for the first, *thou* or *you* for the second, and *he*, *she*, or *it* for the third. The relative pronouns do not change their form to represent person.

(c.) The essential difference is seen in the *relations* which they denote (see 68, 2), and in their use in construction. The personal pronoun may represent the subject of an independent sentence; the relative never; as, "He is present." "Which is important." The first is a complete sentence; the second needs some word, as *measure* (which is important), on which it may depend.

75. Simple Relatives.

1. The *simple* relatives are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*.

2. *Who* is used to represent *persons*; *which* and *what* to represent *things*; and *that* to represent both *persons* and *things*.

3. The antecedent of a relative pronoun is not only the word for which the pronoun stands, but is the leading or antecedent term of a relation, of which the clause introduced by the relative is the subsequent

Relative Pronoun. The relative used as an adjective. Difference between the relative and personal pronoun. Simple relatives. "Who," "which," "that," and "what."

term; it is that on which the relative clause depends, and is either a definite or an indefinite object.

4. *Who, which, and that* usually refer to a definite antecedent; as, "The man who came." "The horse which died." "The tree that fell." In the sentence, "Who steals my purse steals trash," *who* refers to an indefinite antecedent. *What* may refer either to a definite or an indefinite antecedent; as, "I gave him *what* money he wanted" (definite). "I gave him *what* [things] he wanted" (indefinite). When the antecedent is indefinite, the relative stands alone.

5. *What* is both a relative pronoun and a limiting adjective, and is equivalent to *that* or *those, which*, and consequently has a double construction. When the antecedent is expressed, *what* should be parsed (1.) as an adjective; (2.) as a relative pronoun; as, "He gave me *what* books I wanted." When the antecedent is omitted, the indefinite noun "things" may be supplied, making this case the same as above; or, it may be taken (1.) as an adjective in the sense of *that* or *those*, but used as a noun (69, 2); it is then the antecedent to itself used (2.) as a relative in the sense of *which*; as, "He gave me *what* I wanted," that is, "He gave me *that* (ant.) *which* (rel.) I wanted."

6. The word *that* is a relative only when *who* or *which* can be substituted for it; as, "He *that* (*who*) getteth wisdom loveth his own soul." "What private grief they have, alas! I know not, *that* (*which*) made them do it." It is a pronominal adjective when it limits a noun expressed or understood; as, "*That* book." It is a subordinate conjunction when it joins a dependent clause to some part of a principal; as, "I know *that* my Redeemer liveth."

7. *What* is a relative (1.) when it can be changed into *that which*; as, "It is *what* (*that which*) I wanted;" (2.) when it both limits and relates to a noun; as, "What ore was found, was very poor" = *That ore which was found, &c.* It is an interrogative pronoun, when used alone (belonging to an indefinite object) to ask a question; as, "*What* [things] do you want?" It is an interrogative adjective when used to limit a noun (a definite object), and also to ask a question; as, "*What* excuse does he render?" It is an interjection when it denotes an exclamation; as, "*What!* have you come?" It is an adverb when it is equivalent to *partly*; as, "The year before, he had so used the matter, *that what* by force, *what* by policy, he had taken from the Christians above thirty castles."

8. When *that* is used as the object of a preposition, the latter is always placed at the end of a clause; and *that* must be changed to *whom* or *which* whenever the preposition precedes; as, "It was James *that* I depended upon" = upon whom I depended.

. The antecedent—definite and indefinite. "What." Different uses of "that"—of "what." "That" as object of a preposition.

9. By an ellipsis of the relative, *as*, after *such*, *many*, and *same*, seems to take its place, and may be regarded as a relative, though, properly speaking, it is never a relative; as, "The Lord added to the church daily, *such as* [were those who] should be saved."

76. Compound Relatives.

1. The *compound* relatives are *whoso*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

2. These are formed from the simple relatives by adding the adverbs *ever* and *soever*. *What*, on account of its *double* construction (75, 5), has been erroneously regarded as a compound pronoun.

3. *Whoever* and *whosoever* refer to some indefinite antecedent, as *he*, *person*, *any one*, and are equivalent to *any one who*; as, "Whoever hopes a faultless piece to see." In all other respects they are parsed like *who*, *whose*, *whom*. *Whichever* and *whichever* refer to a definite object, to which they belong as adjectives; as, "*Whichever* way you take will lead to the city." They are equivalent to *any—which*. *Whatever* and *whatsoever* belong, as adjectives, either to a definite or an indefinite object, and relate, as pronouns, to the same (75, 5); as, "We are interested in *whatever* occupation you follow." "*Whatsoever* is more than these cometh of evil." They are equivalent to *that—which*, or *any thing—which*.

4. The relative and interrogative pronouns are thus declined:—

	Sing. and Plu.	Sing. and Plu.
Nom.	Who,	Which,
Pos.	Whose,	Whose,
Obj.	Whom,	Which.

That and *what* have no variation. *Whoever* and *whosoever* are declined like *who*.

77. Exercise—Models for Parsing.

1. "The man *who* is faithfully attached to religion will be upright."
Who . . is a relative pronoun. (Why?)

(1.) As a pronoun it has *man* for its antecedent; nominative *who*, possessive *whose*, objective *whom*; plural the same; third person, singular number, masculine gender, because its antecedent is (Rule III.: Repeat it), nominative case, and is used as the subject of the proposition, "*who is attached*." (Rule I. Repeat it.)

"As" after "such," "many," and "same." Compound relatives. Their formation. "Whoever," "Whosoever," &c. Declension of the relatives.

(2.) As a relative or connective it joins the subordinate proposition, "who is faithfully attached to religion," to the antecedent *man*. Rule XV. (Repeat it.)

2. "Cherish true patriotism, *whose* root is benevolence."

Whose . is a relative pronoun. (Why?)

(1.) As a pronoun it has *patriotism* for its antecedent; nominative *which*, &c. ; third person, singular number, neuter gender (Rule III. : Repeat it); possessive case, and is used to limit root, by denoting possession: Rule VII. (Repeat it).

(2.) As a relative or connective, it connects the subordinate proposition "whose root is benevolence," to the antecedent *patriotism*: Rule XV. (Repeat it.)

3. "Compassion is an emotion of *which* we should never be ashamed."

Which . is a relative pronoun. (Why?)

(1.) As a pronoun it represents *emotion* as its antecedent (decline and give person, number, gender: Rule III.); objective case, and is used as the object of the preposition *of*: Rule XIV. (Repeat it.)

(2.) As a relative or connective, it joins the subordinate proposition, "of which we should never be ashamed," to the antecedent *emotion*: Rule XV.

4. "Here is the sofa *that* he sat upon."

That . . is a relative pronoun. (Why?)

(1.) As a pronoun it has *sofa* for its antecedent (decline, and give person, number, gender: Rule III.); objective case, and used as the object of the preposition *upon*. Rule XIV. (See 75, 8.)

(2.) As a relative or connective, it connects the subordinate proposition, "that he sat upon," to the antecedent *sofa*. Rule XV.

5. "I have ascertained *what* lesson we must learn."

What . . is a relative pronoun, used also as an adjective; (1.) As an adjective, it belongs to *lesson*, according to Rule V.

(2.) As a pronoun, it represents *lesson* for its antecedent, and is of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, according to Rule III., objective case, and is the object of *must learn*, according to Rule VIII.

(3.) As a relative or connective, it joins the subordinate proposition, "what we must learn," to the antecedent *lesson*. Rule XV.

6. "I know *what* will be done."

What . . is a relative pronoun, used also as an adjective.

(1.) As an adjective, it belongs to some noun, as *thing* (*what thing*), understood; and should be parsed as above (75, 5), or it may be used as a noun of the third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, and the object of *know*. Rule VIII.

(2.) As a pronoun, it relates to *thing* understood, or to *what* (used as the noun *thing*) for its antecedent, and is of the third person, singular number, neuter gender (Rule III.), nominative case, and the subject of *will be done*. Rule I.

(3.) As a relative or connective, it connects the subordinate proposition, "*what will be done*," to *thing* or to *what*, used as a noun. Rule XV.

7. "He has lost *whatever* fortune he had."

Parse "*whatever*" according to the first model (5.) for "*what*."

8. "*Whoever* fails must try again."

Supply the antecedent, (76, 3) and parse as in Model 1.

9. Parse the RELATIVES in the following examples:—

A dauntless soul erect who smiles on death.—*Thomson*.

Call imperfection what thou fanciest such.—*Pope*.

Whoever seeks the good of others, will himself be blest.

Whatsoever he doeth, shall prosper.

But that which gave the brightest lustre not only to the eloquence of Chatham, but to his character, was his loftiness and nobleness of soul. He loved fame, but it was the fame that follows, not the fame that is run after; not the fame that is gained by the little acts that bring forward little men, but the fame that a minister will and must wring from the very people whose prejudices he despises, and whose passions he controls.—*Mahon*.

For the structure that we raise

Time is with materials filled;

Our to-days and yesterdays

Are the blocks with which we build.—*Longfellow*.

9. Tell what part of speech "*that*" is in the following examples (74, 6):

Thoughts that breathe and words that burn.

That is the same man that we met before.

I do not deny that you may be right.

I will send the articles that you asked for.

I hope that that boy that stole that purse will be punished.

It is not from my lips that that strain of eloquence is this day to flow.—*Webster*.

78. Interrogative Pronouns.

1. An *interrogative* pronoun is used both to represent a noun, and to ask a question; as, "*Who* art thou, Lord?"

2. The interrogatives are *who*, used to inquire for persons; *which*, for persons and things; and *what* (usually) for things; as, "*Who* gave thee that authority?" "*Which* house does he live in?" "*What* have I to do with thee?"

3. When a *definite* object is inquired for, *what* and *which* are interrogative adjectives used to limit the name of the object inquired for; as, "*What* books do you want?" "*Which* road shall we take?" When an *indefinite* object is inquired for, the interrogative takes its place, or belongs to it, understood (59, 3); as, "*What* (thing) do you want?"

4. When an interrogative sentence is quoted, and incorporated into another sentence, it loses much of its interrogative character; the interrogative pronoun becomes a connective, and as the incorporated clause is an unanswered question, the pronoun refers to some person or thing both *unknown* and *unmentioned*. It may therefore be called an *indefinite interrogative pronoun*; as, "*Who* is concealed in the garden?" The name has not been mentioned, and although he may be a familiar friend, yet as the *concealed one*, he is unknown. The answer, therefore, must be, "I do not know *who* is concealed in the garden." *Who* is here (1.) an *indefinite interrogative pronoun*, third person, singular number (shown by the verb), masculine gender, nominative case, &c.; and (2.) a subordinate connective, joining the subordinate proposition, "*who* is concealed in the garden," to *know*. Rule XV. Compare this with "I do not know *him who* is concealed in the garden." Here *who* should be parsed as a relative pronoun, having *him* for its antecedent.

5. Besides *pronouns*, various interrogative adverbs are used in asking questions; as, *Why? Where? When? How?*

79. Exercise.

1. *Point out the interrogative pronouns in the following examples:—*

Who has learned his lesson? Which seat do you prefer? What have you found in the garden? For what are you punished? Whose school do you attend? Who went with you? Whom do you follow? Which way has she gone?

2. *Tell which of the above examples are pronouns, and which interrogative adjectives. (See 78, 3).*

Interrogative pronouns—"who," "which," and "what." Definite and indefinite interrogative pronouns. Interrogative adverbs.

3. Tell which of the following pronouns are relative, which interrogative :—

He whose image thou art. From what fountain flowed their light? What title dost thou bear? Whose genius had angelic wings. What readiest way would bring me to the place? Who found the flower? I am he whom ye seek. He found the book for which I sent him. Of whom do you speak? That which was lost is found.

4. Models for parsing interrogatives :—

“Who shall separate us from the love of Christ?”

Who is a pronoun (why?); interrogative (why?); its antecedent (subsequent) is not expressed; nominative *who*, possessive *whose*, objective *whom*; plural, the same; *third person*, *singular number*, *masculine gender*, because its antecedent (subsequent, *no one* implied) is (Rule III. : Repeat it), *nominative case*, and used as the subject of the proposition, “who shall separate.” Rule I. (Repeat it.)

“Whose books have you found?”

Whose is an interrogative pronoun; nominative *who*, &c. (person, number, and gender depending upon the object conceived of as the answer), possessive case, and is used to limit *books* by denoting possession. Rule VII. (Repeat it.)

“What seek ye?”

What is an interrogative pronoun; indeclinable; *third person* (number and gender depending upon the object conceived of as the answer), objective case, and used as the object of the verb “seek.” Rule VIII. (Repeat it.)

“What lesson shall we learn?”

What is a pronominal adjective, used interrogatively, and belongs to *lesson*, for which it inquires. Rule V.

“I know not who is there.”

Who is an (1.) indefinite interrogative pronoun, having properly no antecedent, but referring to some unknown person previously inquired for, *third person*, *singular number* (shown by the verb), *masculine gender*, (47, 6), &c.; and (2.) a subordinate connective, joining the subordinate proposition, “who is there,” to *know*. Rule XV.

5. Parse the NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, and PRONOUNS, in the following examples :—

A great mistake, which is too common, especially among those who

Models for parsing.

have experienced many trials and difficulties in life, is, that happiness is to be found in rest. But, as has been pointedly remarked, that man is most restless, who is most at rest.—*Buckminster*.

Mark but my fall, and that that ruined me.
Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition!
By that sin fell the angels.—*Shakspeare*.

Motionless torrents! silent cataracts!
Who made you glorious as the gates of heaven
Beneath the keen full moon? Who bade the sun
Clothe you with rainbows?—*Coleridge*.

Ay! Heaven had set one living man
Beyond the pedant's tether—
His virtues, frailties, He will scan,
Who weighs them all together!

I fling my pebble on the cairn,
Of him though dead, undying—
Sweet Nature's nursling, bonniest bairn,
Beneath her daisies lying.—*Holmes*.

VERBS.

80. Definitions and Distinctions.

1. A *verb* is a word which expresses *being*, *action*, or *state*; as, *be*, *read*, *sleep*, *is loved*.

2. The being, action, or state may be *affirmed*, *assumed*, or *used abstractly*; as, "George runs." "George running." "To run." When an *affirmation* is made, the verb is either the predicate or copula of the proposition, and is said to be *finite*; when the action of the verb is *assumed*, it takes the construction of the *adjective*, is joined to the subject, and is called a *participle*; when it is used *abstractly*, it is separated from the subject, and being unlimited by its person or number, it is said to be *infinitive* (*unlimited*).

3. *Affirm*, as here used, includes an *absolute* declaration; as, "Mary learns;"—a *conditional* statement; as, "If Mary learns;"—an *interrogation*; as, "Does Mary learn?"—a *petition*; as, "May Mary learn;"—a *command*; as, "Mary, learn."

Verbs. Different uses of the being, action, or state. Meaning of "affirm."

4. Strictly speaking, a word expressing *being, action, &c.*, is a verb only when it has also the power to affirm. This would exclude the participle and the infinitive, and make them both participles, as they really are. They are then forms derived from the verb; but as these are commonly included with the verb, the foregoing definition is adopted.

5. The abstract or substantive verb is the pure verb *Be*, called the *copula*, having no other power or value than to assert some attribute of a noun. When the attribute is a *quality*, this verb must always be used; as, "Lead *is* heavy;" but when the attribute is an *action*, it may blend with the verb *be*, and then both become one word; as, "The sun *is rising*." "The sun *ris*es." The combined form then takes the name of verb, and undergoes inflections to represent *voice, mode, tense, number, and person*; in all other cases, the verb *to be* undergoes these variations. These verbs are called *attributive*, because to the pure verb they join an attribute.

6. The verb *to be* is attributive, whenever it is used to assert existence; as, "There *was* a man sent from God." When thus used, the verb is commonly followed by its subject, and preceded by the expletive "there," which serves no other purpose than to introduce the sentence, and indicate this peculiarity of the verb.

7. Every finite verb represents some *person or thing*, as acting or existing in a certain state, and that which represents this *person or thing* is called the *subject*; as, "*Frank* plays." "*She* sleeps."

81. Exercise.

1. Point out the verbs and their subjects in the following examples:—

The clouds vanish. The vapor rises. The plant lives. Flowers die. Children sing. They stand. Can you see? Here they are! The ice melts.

2. Write appropriate verbs for the following nouns as subjects:—

Samuel, the pen, the book, flowers, we, oceans, moon, the earth, forests, the king, Victoria.

3. Write appropriate nouns, as subjects for the following verbs:—

Rules, is, thinks, hopes, learns, shine, grow, dig, revolve, sits, fears, blossom, arise, sink.

4. Point out the verbs on page — in your Reader, and tell the subjects.

NOTE. Let the Teacher assign this lesson.

The substantive verb "to be." The verb "to be" attributive. The subject of the verb.

82. Verbs classified by their use.

1. Verbs are divided, according to their *use*, into *transitive* and *intransitive*.

2. A *transitive* verb requires the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The servant opened the *door*."

3. An *intransitive* verb does not require the addition of an object to complete its meaning; as, "The sun rises." "The horse runs."

4. Verbs may be divided, on account of their relation to the subject, into,—

(a.) The *abstract* or *substantive* verb *BE*, which represents no attribute of the subject whatever, but serves as a *copula*, or *link*, to bind the attribute to the subject.

(b.) *Attributive* or *mixed* verbs, in which an attribute denoting an action or state of the subject is blended with the copula; as, *runs* = *is running*; *is* being the copula, and *running* the attribute.

5. Attributive verbs, including also the copula *to be*, have been divided, with reference to the subject, into those which represent the subject in an *active* state (active verbs); those which represent it in a *passive* state, that is, in such a state as to *receive* or suffer an action (passive verbs); and those which represent the subject in *neither* of these states (neuter verbs); that is, a state in which it neither acts nor receives the effect of an action. But this distinction has little to do with the construction of language. It is the relation of the verb to a succeeding term, the *object*, that renders a classification important.

REMARK.—The old division is retained in the dictionaries, and the learner should understand, in consulting a dictionary, that *v. a.* after a verb is equivalent to *transitive*, *v. n.* to *intransitive*. Thus, *run, fly, walk*, though they represent the subject in a very active state, are marked *v. n.* = *verb neuter*.

6. The terms *transitive* and *intransitive* have been generally adopted by recent grammarians, as best suited to the purposes of construction. Although the idea of an act originating in an agent, and "passing over" to an object, seems inapplicable to such verbs as *have, possess, receive, acquire*, and many others, still the terms, as defined above, are liable to little or no objection.

7. The subdivision of verbs into *active-transitive* and *active-intransitive*, is not only needless, but partial in its application. The distinction is made to apply exclusively to *active* verbs; whereas it may apply as well to *neuter* as to *active* verbs. In the sentence, "The son *resembles* his father," no one will maintain that *resembles* is any more an active verb than *sleeps*. Yet it is transitive, and, to be consistent, we ought to have

Transitive and intransitive verbs. Relation of the verb to the subject.
Active-transitive and active-intransitive verbs.

neuter-transitive and *neuter-intransitive*. By omitting the words *active* and *neuter* altogether, we have a practical division, and one of universal application.

8. The *object* or *complement* of the transitive verb stands as an answer to the question *What?* with the verb; as, "The ox eats" (*What?*) *hay, grass, oats, corn, &c.* To determine whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, we have only to use this test: ask with it the question *What?* or *Whom?* and if the sense requires that a noun or pronoun, meaning a different thing from the subject, should be added, it is transitive; otherwise it is intransitive.

9. When the noun or pronoun thus added means the same person or thing as the subject, it is not the object, but is a *predicate-nominative*, and the verb is either intransitive, or transitive in the passive voice. All such verbs perform the office of the *copula*, and are, hence, called *copulative* verbs. These are *be* (*the simple copula*), *become, seem, appear, stand, walk*, and other verbs of *position, motion, and condition*; the passive verbs—*is called, is named, is styled, is appointed, is constituted, is elected, is chosen, is made, is esteemed, is reckoned*, and others.

10. A transitive verb in a proposition necessarily implies three terms—a *subject* or *agent*, a *predicate*, and an *object*. When the verb assumes the passive form, the foregoing order is inverted, and we have an *object*, a *predicate*, and a *subject* or *agent*; as, "The locusts (*agent = sub.*) devoured (*pred.*) the grass" (*obj.*) = The grass (*obj. = sub.*) was devoured (*pred.*) by the locusts (*agent*). An intransitive verb requires but two terms, a subject and predicate, and as it cannot assume the passive form (except by the aid of a preposition) (77, 9), the terms can undergo no such change as above.

11. Many verbs are transitive in one signification, and intransitive in another. When the object is not necessarily implied, it is better to consider such verbs intransitive, and not transitive, because an object *may* be supplied; as, "She sings beautifully" (intransitive). "She sings soprano" (transitive).

12. Some verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive when used with a causative signification; as, "The train usually runs at the rate of twenty-five miles an hour; but they *ran* a train (caused it run) at the rate of forty." Some verbs become transitive when they take an object after them of a kindred signification; as, "He *ran* a race, played a game."

83. Exercise.

1. Tell which of the following verbs are transitive, which intransitive:—

Anna loves her mother. The golden gates open. The moon silvers

Object of transitive verbs. The predicate-nominative. Subject, predicate, and object. The same verb sometimes transitive, and sometimes intransitive. Causative verbs.

the distant hills. Mary has found her ring. Eleanor writes poetry. The snow melts. The icy fetters break. The innocent lamb dies. The child plays. The fragrant flowers bloom. She received a letter. Does Paul live there?

2. Write an appropriate subject and object for each of the following verbs:—

Rings, learn, find, hide, fears, remembers, inflicts, receives, lift, hears, renews, reviews, write.

MODEL. The sexton rings the bell.

3. Point out the transitive and intransitive verbs in the following examples; also the subject of each verb, and the object, if it has one:—

O spare me, that I may recover strength before I go hence, and be no more.

Awake! arise! or be for ever fallen!

Hannibal passed through Gaul, crossed the Alps, came down into Italy, and defeated several Roman generals; but he could not conquer the country, nor take the city of Rome.

Let me die the death of the righteous, and let my last end be like his.

Hands of angels hidden from mortal eyes, shifted the scenery of the heavens; the glories of night dissolved into the glories of the dawn. The blue sky now turned more softly gray; the great watch-stars shut up their holy eyes, the east began to kindle, and soon the whole celestial concave was filled with the inflowing tides of the morning light.—*Everett*.

The shadow of departed hours
Hangs dim upon thine early flowers,
Even in thy sunshine, seems to brood
Something too deep for solitude.—*Hemans*.

84. Verbs classified by their form.

1. Verbs are divided, according to their *form*, into *regular* and *irregular*.

2. A *regular* verb is one which forms its past tense, and past participle, by adding *ed* (25, 3) to the present tense; as, love, loved, loved; gain, gained, gained.

3. An *irregular* verb is one which does *not* form its past tense and past participle by the addition of *ed* to the present tense; as, see, saw, seen; write, wrote, written.

4. A *defective* verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting; as, may, might (participle wanting).

Regular and irregular verbs. Defective verbs.

5. An *auxiliary* verb is one which is employed in the conjugation of other verbs; as, *have*, in *have loved*.

6. An *impersonal* verb is one by which an action or state is asserted independently of any particular subject; as, "*It rains.*" "*It snows.*"

85. Exercise.

1. *Point out the verbs in the following examples; tell whether they are regular or irregular; transitive or intransitive.* (See list of irregular verbs).

Where shall a man go to avoid pain and sickness?

If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink.

All that the Father giveth me, shall come to me.

Canst thou bind the sweet influences of the Pleiades? or loose the bands of Orion?

I impeach him (Warren Hastings) in the name of the English nation, whose ancient honor he has sullied.—*Burke*.

Far as the breeze can bear, the billows foam,

Survey our empire, and behold our home.—*Byron*.

2. *Write five sentences containing regular transitive, and five containing irregular transitive verbs. Draw a line under the verb and its object.*

MODEL.

REG. TRANSITIVE.

Mr. Brown *has incurred* a great debt.

IRREG. TRANSITIVE.

The child *led* the blind man.

3. *In the same way write five sentences containing regular intransitive—and five containing irregular intransitive verbs.*

86. Properties of Verbs.

To verbs belong *voice, mode, tense, number, and person*.

87. Voice.

1. *Voice* is that form of the transitive verb which shows whether the subject *acts* or is *acted upon*.

2. There are two voices—the *active* and the *passive*.

Auxiliary verbs. Impersonal verbs. Voice, mode, tense, number, and person of verbs. Active and passive voice.

3. The *active* voice represents the subject as *acting*; as, "John struck William."

Here *John* is the subject, and *John* performs the act.

4. The *passive* voice represents the subject as *acted upon*; as, "William was struck by John."

Here *William* is the subject, but he does not act: he only *receives* the act, or is *acted upon*; that is, is *passive*, which means *suffering* or *receiving* an act, the subject or receiver, meanwhile, being in an inactive state.

5. Any sentence, having for its predicate a transitive verb, may be changed or transformed by changing the active to the passive voice, or the passive to the active. The same meaning, or nearly the same, will be expressed in either case.

6. A transitive verb necessarily implies the presence of an *active* and a *passive* person or thing. The one *performs* the act, the other *receives* or *suffers* it. If the active one is made the subject of the sentence, the verb is said to be in the *active voice*; if the passive one is made the subject, the verb is said to be in the *passive voice*; as, "The locusts devoured (active) the grass." "The grass was devoured (passive) by the locusts." Strictly speaking, the ideas of *active* and *passive*, though manifesting themselves in the form of the verb, are not attributes of the verb, but of the persons or things connected with it, just as comparison, though exhibiting itself in the form of the adjective, is really the bringing together of two or more *objects*, and not qualities.

7. The following are all the possible cases which can occur:—

(a.) One and the same person or thing may represent both relations, the *active* and the *passive*; as, "He struck himself." "She struck herself." "It destroyed itself." "You struck yourself." "I struck myself." See Personal Pronoun, (70, 7).

(b.) Two different persons or things may be employed to represent these relations.

(1.) One may be simply active, and the other simply passive; as, "George struck William" = William was struck by George.

(2.) Each may be, at the same time, both active and passive; as, "They struck each other" = They struck, each [struck] the other. (See 208, 9).

(c.) Three different persons or things may be employed; one active, and two passive.

(1.) One may act, another suffers the act, while the third stands as that to which the act is tending; as, "He (act) gave me (tending to) a

Change of active to passive voice. Active and passive object or party. Different relations of these parties.

book" (pass.). "*He told me his history*" = *His history was told me by him* = *I was told his history by him*.

(2.) One acts, another is acted upon, and thereby transformed or made into the third (212, 9); as, "*They made him an officer*" = *He was made an officer by them* = *An officer was made of him by them*. In this case there are but two different persons or things. The second and third denote the same individual.

8. When the agent is *unknown*, or when we wish to *conceal* it, by drawing attention only to the *act* and the *object* affected by it, we use the *passive voice*; as, "*Gold is found* (by some one unknown, or known, but not mentioned) in California." But if we wish to make the agent prominent, we use the *active voice*; as, "*Moses conducted the Israelites out of Egypt*."

9. Some intransitive verbs, when accompanied by the preposition following, admit of a passive form; as, "*They laughed at him*" = *He was laughed at*. So, when a verb takes two objects, one *direct* and the other *indirect*, the latter is sometimes made the subject of the verb in the passive voice (212, 13); as, "*I told him a story*" = *He was told a story*.

10. Certain intransitive verbs, as *come*, *arrive*, *fall*, *rise*, &c., admit of a passive form, yet with an intransitive signification, as will be seen by observing that the *agent* or *actor*, not the *object*, is the subject of the sentence in either form; as, "*Babylon is fallen*" (has fallen). This idiom is less common now than formerly, and may be regarded as an imitation of the French or German forms of similar verbs.

88. Exercise.

1. *Tell which of the following verbs are in the active voice, which in the passive :—*

The moon gives a pleasant light. The book was written by my father. The song of the bird is heard in the grove. Leverrier discovered a new planet. How doth the little busy bee improve each shining hour. Knowledge gives power. The heavens declare the glory of God.

2. *In the above sentences, change the verbs in the active voice into the passive, and the verbs in the passive voice into the active.*

3. *Write five sentences containing regular, and five containing irregular verbs, in the passive voice.*

MODEL.

REG. PASSIVE.

Charles I. *was beheaded*.

IRREG. PASSIVE.

The grass *was mown*.

The agent unknown or concealed. Intransitive verbs with a preposition. Passive forms of "*come*," "*arrive*," "*fall*," &c.

4. *Select the verbs in the following examples, tell whether they are regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive, of the active or passive voice:—*

The thunders of heaven are sometimes heard to roll in the voice of a united people.

In the battle of Solferino, four hundred thousand men are said to have been engaged.

I care not what mines are opened in the mountains of Siberia, or in the sierras of California; wheresoever the fountains of the golden tide may gush forth, the streams will flow to the regions where educated intellect has woven the boundless net-work of the useful and ornamental arts.—*Everett.*

'Tis finished.—Their thunders are hushed on the moors;

Culloden is lost, and my country deplores:

But where is the iron-bound prisoner? Where?

For the red eye of battle is shut in despair.—*Campbell.*

89. Mode.

1. Mode is the *manner* in which the action, being, or state is asserted.

2. Mode does not show the manner of the action or state, but the manner of its assertion. It may be asserted as a *reality*, or as something *imagined*, that *may*, *can*, or *must* take place, or as something *imagined* or *supposed*, which is placed under a condition, or as something *desired*. The manner of the action or state is expressed by means of limiting words; as, "The soldier *fought* (a reality) *bravely*" (manner of the act); "The soldier *may fight* (something imagined) *bravely*" (manner of the supposed act).

3. The infinitive is not properly a mode of the verb (80, 2); for, since it does not assert action at all, it cannot be said to have any *manner* or *mode* of assertion. The same may be said of the participles. In fact, the infinitive is a participle, partaking of the properties of the noun and the verb, as the (so called) participles partake of the properties of the adjective and the verb.

4. There are commonly reckoned five modes—the *indicative*, the *potential*, the *subjunctive*, the *imperative*, and the *infinitive*.

5. The *indicative* mode asserts a thing as *actually existing*; as, "James *loves*." "William *was struck*."

6. The *potential* mode asserts the *power*, *liberty*, *permission*, *necessity*, or *duty* of acting, or being in a certain state; as, "We

Mode, the manner of assertion. Infinitive not properly a mode. The *indicative mode*. The *potential*.

can sing." "You may write." "He must read." "They should obey the law."

7. The *subjunctive* mode asserts a thing as *conditional*, or *doubtful*; as, "If he leave me." "Though he *slay* me."

8. The *imperative* mode asserts a *command*, an *entreaty*, or a *permission*; as, "Write." "Go thou." "Be admonished."

9. The *infinitive* mode represents the action or state as an *abstract noun*; as, "To write." "To be seen."

(10.) The *indicative* mode is used in principal propositions, and is employed to represent what is *actual*, *real*, or *absolute*. It may be used in interrogative or exclamatory sentences; as, "Has he arrived?" "The villain has fired the dwelling!" It is often used in subordinate propositions, but always to represent what is *actual*; as, "I know *that* he discovered (actually) the plot."

11. The *potential* mode is also used in principal propositions, not, however, to represent the *actual*, but that which, at the time of speaking, exists, or is supposed to exist, only in *idea*—that which is merely *imagined* or *thought of*. The *ideal* act or state, however, is supposed to have some relation to *reality*. It can become a reality; that is, there is no impossibility in the way of its realization; no ability is wanting: it *may* become a reality, that is, *permission* is granted, or in the final result *perhaps* it will be a reality; it *must* become actual, that is, a *necessity*, or an obligation exists. This mode may be used in interrogative, exclamatory, or supplicatory sentences; as, "Can he leave the city in safety?" "He may be assassinated!" "May the truth be victorious." It may be used in subordinate propositions, but always to represent what is *ideal* or what has not been *realized*; as, "He says that I may (I do not now) attend school." The potential may be known by the auxiliaries, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*. See (113).

12. The *subjunctive* mode is used exclusively in subordinate propositions, and hence its name ("sub," *under*, and "juncto," *I join*). It is joined to the verb of the principal proposition by the subordinate conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *although*, *lest*, *except*, *that*, *save that*, *unless*, *provided that*, and some others; they impart the idea of *doubt*, *contingency*, or *conditionality*. Whatever of futurity may be implied in the subjunctive, is to be accounted for either from the fact that anything that is conditional or contingent is *yet* to be realized (if ever), or from the influence of a suppressed auxiliary, such as *shall* or *should*, which imparts (though understood) the idea of futurity; as, "Though he (should) slay me, yet will I trust in him."

The subjunctive mode. The imperative. The infinitive. The indicative and potential used in principal propositions. The subjunctive used in subordinate propositions.

13. The subjunctive represents an ideal act, or a real act, conceived only as an idea, and places it under a condition accompanied with more or less doubt. As to a distinctive form of the subjunctive, it can scarcely be said to have any, unless it be found in the present tense, or present and past of *to be*; and in all such cases (with the single exception of *were*, in examples like "If it *were*," "If I *were*"), by supplying an ellipsis, they may be referred to the forms of the indicative future or the past potential; as, "If it rain, we shall not leave" = If it *should* rain, &c. "Till one greater man restore (*shall* restore) us, and regain (*shall* regain) the blissful seat, sing, heavenly muse." The majority of writers, at the present time, employ the forms of the indicative present; as, "If it rains;" "If he leaves." Hence the subjunctive may be regarded as borrowing its forms from the indicative and potential modes.

14. The imperative mode is used in principal propositions. It is the mode which expresses *will* or *desire*. It may usually be known by the omission of the subject; as, "*Read*" (thou); "*write*." The force of this mode, under the same form, depends upon the relation of the parties. If a superior speaks imperatively to an inferior, it is a command; if an equal to an equal, it is an exhortation or an entreaty; if an inferior to a superior, it is a prayer or supplication. The imperative is made subordinate only in a direct quotation; as, "God said, Let there be light." It is often elegantly put for a conditional clause; as, "Let but the commons hear this testament, and they would go and kiss dead Cæsar's wounds" = Could the commons, &c., or, If the commons could but hear, &c.

15. The infinitive is used in abridged propositions, and hence is wholly dependent, being incorporated as an element of another proposition. It does not assert anything; it is not limited by the number and person of a subject, and hence its name (80, 2), *infinitive* = *unlimited*, in distinction from *finite*, which is applied to all verbs used in construction with their subjects, and thereby limited by the number and person of the latter.

16. The infinitive is used as an abstract noun, yet it may be associated with the subject from which it has been abstracted; as, "The soldier *faints*" (finite), "for the soldier *to faint*" (infin.); "He *goes*" (finite), "for him *to go*" (infin.); "we told him *to go*" (infin.).

90. Exercise.

1. Tell the mode of each of the verbs in the following examples; also the kind of verb:—

Where wast thou when I laid the foundations of the earth? declare, if thou hast understanding.

Forms of the subjunctive. The imperative used in principal propositions. The subjunctive used in abridged propositions.

Then said Jesus to his disciples, If any man will come after me, let him deny himself, and take up his cross, and follow me.

Daughter of Faith ! awake, arise, illumine
The dread unknown, the chaos of the tomb.—*Campbell*.

I steal by lawns and grassy plots,
I slide by hazel covers ;
I move the sweet forget-me-nots
That grow for happy lovers.

And out again I curve and flow,
To join the brimming river ;
For men may come and men may go,
But I go on for ever.—*Tennyson*.

PARTICIPLES.

91. Definition and Distinctions.

A *participle* is a word having the signification of a verb, but the construction of an adjective ; as, " We found him *lying* on the ground." "*Having written* his letter, he sent it to his friend."

1. The participle is so called because it participates or partakes of the properties of the verb and adjective. It is the attributive (80, 4, 5) part of the verb alone ; it is the being, action, or state deprived of the power of assertion ; and therefore, when joined without the copula to the noun whose attribute it expresses, it must be assumed (not predicated), (163, 7) just as an adjective is assumed under similar circumstances. It has the meaning of the verb, is modified like the verb, but is used like the adjective.

2. The participle is not a distinct part of speech, but is derived directly from the verb,—the present by adding *ing*, the past by adding *ed*, to all regular verbs, and the perfect by prefixing to the past the auxiliary *having*.

92. Classes of Participles.

1. There are, properly, two participles—the *present* and the *perfect* ; as, *reading*, *having read* ; (*being*) *loved*, *having been loved*.

2. These two participles correspond to the present and perfect tenses

The participle. The attributive part of the verb. Two participles.

of the verb. They are used in abridged propositions; the former when the proposition before its abridgment was in the present, past, or future tense; the latter when it was in either of the perfect tenses. See abridged propositions (182, 6).

3. There are, however, three forms, commonly called participles—the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*. Thus,—

	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Perf.</i>
ACTIVE VOICE .	<i>loving,</i>	<i>loved,</i>	<i>having loved.</i>
PASSIVE VOICE .	<i>(being) loved,</i>	<i>loved,</i>	<i>having been loved.</i>

4. The passive participle *loved* does not necessarily denote past time. Of itself, it simply denotes the reception of an act, complete or incomplete. The time depends upon that of the verb with which it is associated.

5. The form called the *past participle* may have been once the passive participle, having the same form. If so, it has now wholly lost its original signification, and, strictly speaking, has lost its character as a participle. It never partakes of the properties of the adjective; it never is used to limit a noun like that part of speech; it is never used alone in participial constructions, that is, where the participle, with the words depending upon it, takes the place of a subordinate proposition; it is always found in the predicate, either of complete or abridged propositions, and is connected with some form of *have*; as, *have loved, had loved, having loved*; it has an active signification, and always denotes a past, completed act, and belongs as well to intransitive as to transitive verbs.

6. The passive participle of the same form, on the contrary, is limited to transitive verbs, has always a passive signification, may denote as well present as past time; it may have the participial construction, or with the copula, may form the *passive verb* in all the modes and tenses.

7. Participles, in their appropriate use, take the place of dependent propositions, and consequently represent time in the same manner as the propositions from which they are derived. As the verb of the dependent clause dates from the time expressed by the principal verb, and not from that of the speaker, the participle may be present, with a past, present, or future act; as, "I saw a man *walking*;" "I see a man *walking*;" "I shall see a man *walking*." So, again, the participle may denote a past act, completed at the time of a past, present, or future act; as, "*Having ploughed* his field, the farmer *sowed, sows, will sow* the seed."

Three participial forms. The past participle. The passive participle. Participles same as dependent propositions.

93. Present Active Participle.

1. The *present active* participle denotes an action or state present, and in progress at the time represented by the principal verb; as, "We *find*, *found*, or *shall find* him *sitting* in a chair."

2. This participle always ends in *ing*; it has an active signification, and may be used in abridging propositions, as, "I saw a man *walking* in the meadow," i. e. *who was walking*. It may be used wholly as an adjective, it is then placed before the noun; as, "The *roaring* billows." When thus used, it is called a *participial adjective*. It may be used with the copula in the *progressive form* of the verb; as, "I *am reading*." It may be used like the Latin gerund to denote a concomitant act; as, "The Son of Man came *eating* and *drinking*." It may be used (1.) wholly as a noun, with the preceding, and of following; as, "The *reading* of the law;" or (2.) in the construction of the noun with the modifications of the verb; as, "The eye is never satisfied with *beholding* the stupendous works of the Creator."

3. Though this participle is usually active, it sometimes has a passive signification. When an object is undergoing a progressive change, and we wish to express this as a continuous reception of the act, our language is deficient in appropriate forms. Good writers have resorted to the use of the active participle, giving it a passive signification; as, "The house is *building*." "New efforts are *making* for the extension of this trade."—*Webster*. "This new tragedy was *acting*."—*Everett*.

Recent writers of some distinction have adopted the forms, "The house is *being built*." "Preparations are *being made*." It is not the province of the grammarian to dictate as to questions of usage, but to admit and explain whatever good, national, and reputable usage sanctions. When subjected to these tests, it must be said of such forms, that they are by no means adopted by the best writers as good English, they are not sanctioned by the best grammarians, and they are of too recent origin to be regarded as idioms of the language.

94. Present Passive Participle.

1. The *present passive* participle denotes the reception of an act, at the time represented by the principal verb; as, "He *lives*, *loved*, *will live*, *loved* by all."

2. This participle may be used as an adjective, or with the copula, to form the passive verb; as, "A *refined* taste is *possessed* only by the *cultivated*." When preceded by *being*, it may be used as a noun; as, "By

The present active participle. Its form and uses. Sometimes has a passive signification. The present passive participle. Its uses.

being involved in one wrong act, he was soon lost to all the appeals of his friends."

95. Perfect Participles, Active and Passive.

1. The *perfect active* participle denotes an action or state completed at the time represented by the principal verb ; as, "*Having finished* his speech, he *sat* down."

2. The *perfect passive* participle denotes the reception of an act, past and completed, at the time represented by the principal verb ; as, "*Having been driven* from home, he enlisted in the army."

3. The perfect participles are never used like the present, with the copula, to form the predicate. They may be used as verbal nouns ; as, "He was accused of *having obtained* goods on false pretences."

96. The Participle predicated or assumed.

1. The action or state expressed by the participle may be either *predicated* or *assumed* (163, 7) ; as, "The horse *is running* through the street ;" "The horse *running* through the street."

2. The participle, when the act is predicated, constitutes, with the copula, or auxiliary *have*, a form of the verb. The present participle is used in the *progressive form* (109, 1) or imperfect tenses ; the past in the *complete form*, or perfect ; the passive, in the *passive form* ; as, "The farmer *was ploughing* his field." "The farmer *had ploughed* his field." "The field *was ploughed* by the farmer."

3. The participle, when the act is assumed, is equivalent to a subordinate clause ; as, "The boat which sails on yonder lake is propelled by steam" = The boat *sailing* on yonder lake is propelled by steam.

97. Exercise.

1. Write the participles of the following verbs :—

Find, obey, ride, grow, lie, lay, sit, set, lose, loose, load, steal, arrive, suppose, happen, come, do, take, run.

2. Use each of the above participles in a short sentence.

MODELS. *Finding* his mistake, he left. The source of the river *being found*, the travellers returned home. *Having found* the owner, he restored the ring.

The perfect active participle. The perfect passive participle. The action predicated or assumed.

3. Point out the PARTICIPLES in the following examples; tell what kind of participle each one is, and name the verb from which it is derived:—

Let the last feeble and lingering glance of my dying eyes, rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the Republic, now known and honored throughout the earth, still full high advanced,—its arms and trophies streaming in their original lustre, not a stripe erased or polluted, nor a single star obscured.—*Webster.*

One wave rises, and having reached its destined limit, falls gently away, and is succeeded by yet another.—*Story.*

Then shook the hills with thunder riven,
Then rushed the steeds to battle driven,
And louder than the bolts of heaven,
Far flashed the red artillery.—*Campbell.*

The warriors on the turrets high,
Moving athwart the evening sky,
Seemed forms of giant height.
Above the gloomy portal arch,
Timing his footsteps to a march,
The warder kept his guard,
Low humming as he paced along,
Some ancient border-gathering song.—*Scott.*

98. Tense.

1. Tense primarily denotes the *time* of an action or event.

2. Although tense properly denotes the *time* of an action or event, the tense form of the verb is made also to denote the *state* of an act. If an act is spoken of without reference to its *progress* or *completion*, we have the simple or indefinite present, past, or future; as, *I love, I loved, I shall love.* But if a *progressive* and unfinished state of the act is to be represented, we have another form for the present, past, and future; as, *I am writing, I was writing, I shall be writing.* If, again, we wish to represent the *finished* or *completed* state of an *indefinite* act, we have still another form for the present, past, and future; as, *I have loved, I had loved, I shall have loved.* If we wish to represent the *finished* or *completed* state of a *progressive* act, we have yet another form; as, *I have been writing, I had been writing, I shall have been writing.* If we wish to make the simple form emphatic, we have again, another; as, *I do love, I did love,* for the present and past. If we wish to show that the subject is *receiving* or *suffering* an act in present, past, or future time, we have the forms, *I am loved, I was loved, I shall be loved.*

Tense. Time and state of an act. Progressive, complete, and passive state.

3. Tense does not mean the time which elapses from the beginning to the end of an act, that is, the duration of an act. But it refers either to the present, to an indefinite period antecedent to the present, or to an indefinite period subsequent to the present. The present, strictly speaking, has no length; it is the point where the past and future meet. But for the purposes of language, any portion, as a day, a month, a year, a century, may be taken as the present, and all other time as past or future. The present progressive form, however, always assumes the moment of speaking as present.

4. The present is the point or period of time assumed by the speaker or writer, and is the epoch to which all events are referred. Whatever occurs in it, whether before or after the precise moment of speaking, is present; whatever occurs out of it, is either past or future.

99. Divisions of Time.

1. There are three divisions of time—the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*.

2. Were it not necessary to make other distinctions in time based on a subdivision of these three, there would be but three tense forms,—the present, the past, and the future. But it is often required to give to an event a double reference: (1.) to the time of speaking, and (2.) to a given point or portion of the present, past, or future. Tenses which require this second point of reference are called *relative tenses*; while those which have only a single reference to the speaker are called *absolute tenses*.

3. Each division has two tenses—an *absolute* and a *relative*. There are, therefore, six tenses—three absolute and three relative; as (absolute), “I write,” “I wrote,” “I shall write,” (relative), “I have written” (some time to-day or this year), “I had written” (before the boat sailed), “I shall have written” (at noon).

4. The absolute tenses take their name from the division of time to which they belong. Thus we have the *present* tense, the *past* tense, the *future* tense. The relative tenses affix to the name of the tense, the word *perfect*, which refers, not so much to the time as to the completion of the act. Thus we have the *present perfect*, the *past perfect*, and the *future perfect*.

5. To these six tenses may be added, with propriety, three others, called the *present imperfect*, *past imperfect*, and *future imperfect*; as, “I am writing;” “I was writing;” “I shall be writing.” These forms are usually relative tenses; as, “I am writing while you are reading;” “I

Tense not the duration of an act. Signification of “present.” Divisions of time. Absolute and relative tenses. Perfect and imperfect.

was writing when the coach arrived;" "I *shall be writing* when you return." These are, however, called the *progressive* form of the verb, and may be used even in the perfect tenses, to show that a progressive act is completed; as, "I *have been writing*" (but I am not now); "I *had been writing*" (but I was not at the past time referred to); "I *shall have been writing*" (but not at the future time referred to).

100. Classes of Tenses.

The tenses are—the *present*, the *present perfect*; the *past*, the *past perfect*; the *future*, the *future perfect*.

101. Present Tense.

1. The *present* tense represents what takes place in present time; as, "I *see*;" "I *am seeing*;" "I *do see*;" "I *am seen*."

2. By present time is meant the present of the speaker or writer. The present of the hearer is the same as that of the speaker; but that of the reader is not the same as that of the writer.

3. This tense, in the common form, is used to denote a general truth or what is customary; as, "The boy *attends* school;" "Vice *produces* misery;" "Truth *is* powerful." In the progressive form indicative, it expresses what is now actually taking place; as, "He *is writing*." Mark the difference between "He *sings*," that is, "He is a singer" (but is not singing now), and "He *is singing*."

4. The present is often used for other tenses. (1.) It is used for the *past* in animated narratives, where the writer or speaker seems transported to the scene which he describes; as, "He *seizes* his musket, *approaches* the monster, and *lays* him upon the ground." (1.) It is used for the *present perfect* in speaking of authors long since dead, when their writings are referred to; as, "Matthew *traces* the descent of Joseph; Luke *traces* that of Mary." (3.) It is used for the future after *relative pronouns*, and the subordinate connectives, *till*, *until*, *as soon as*, *when*, *before*, *if*; as, "We will pay him when he *comes*." "He will devour every insect which *comes* in his way."

102. Present Perfect Tense.

1. The *present perfect* tense represents a past event completed in present time; as, "I *have seen*;" "I *have been seeing*;" "I *have been seen*."

Present tense. Common, and progressive forms. The present used for other tenses. The present perfect.

2. Whenever the attention is drawn to the completion of an act, the question of time refers not to the entire act, but to the *end* of it. If the completion takes place in a portion of time which the speaker assumes as present, however long that portion may be, or however remote the time of the completion may be from the moment of speaking, the tense is the *present perfect*; as, "I have written a letter this year." The letter might have been *finished* on the first of January, but the *mention* of it might have been made on the last of the following December. But should one moment intervene between the portion assumed as present (one year in the above example) and that in which the act took place, the *past* must be used if we simply refer to the act, or the *past perfect* if we refer to the completion of the act.

3. This tense, like the present, is used for other tenses; as, "Shakespeare *has excelled* all other dramatists." "When I *have finished* my task, I shall return."

103. Past Tense.

1. The *past* tense represents what took place in time wholly past; as, "I *saw*;" "I *was seeing*;" "I *was seen*."

2. The past and the present perfect may both refer to one and the same act. If the speaker refers to an act indefinitely, that is, without regard to its progress or completion, and places it in the past, beyond any portion of what he assumes as present, he must use the past tense; as, "I *wrote* this forenoon;" the afternoon being assumed as present. "I *have written* (the same act) to-day;" the whole day being assumed as present, and the completion (however it may have been with the beginning), has taken place in that present.

3. The past tense, common form (109, 1), often refers to an act indefinitely. It denotes, like the present, what was *customary*; as, "He attended school constantly." But in the progressive form it denotes a definite act in past time, but not completed; as, "He *was writing* when I came."

104. Past Perfect Tense.

1. The *past perfect* represents a past event completed in time wholly past; as, "I *had seen*;" "I *had been seeing*;" "I *had been seen*."

2. The present perfect, the past, and the past perfect may each refer to the same act. Suppose a person to write a letter on Monday; he

The present perfect distinguished from the past and past perfect. Present perfect for other tenses. Past tense. Past compared with present perfect. Common and progressive forms of the past tense. Past perfect tense.

speaks of it on Wednesday, assuming Wednesday alone as the present. He says (referring to the act absolutely and indefinitely), "I wrote a letter." But while he was writing the mail arrived; he now says (referring definitely and relatively to the act *unfinished*, but in *progress*), "I was writing a letter when the mail arrived." Again: in speaking of the same act, he says (referring definitely and relatively to the *completion* of the act), "I had written a letter before the mail left;" or he may say (referring definitely and relatively both to the *progress* and *completion* of the act), "I had been writing a letter." These forms are used, first, because the *time* was *wholly* past, including no part of Wednesday; secondly, because an indefinite absolute act in past time requires the simple past, *wrote*; a definite relative and progressive act in past time requires the past progressive form, *was writing*; while a completed relative act in past time requires the past perfect, *had written*, and a completed progressive past act requires the past perfect progressive, *had been writing*. Now, let the speaker assume, not Wednesday (though that be the day of speaking, as before), but the *whole week*, as the present; he cannot say, "I am writing," for the act is not going on; he cannot say, "I wrote," for the act is included in the time assigned as present; i. e., the time is not *wholly* past. But he can say (referring to the *completion* of the act in the assumed present), "I have written a letter" (this week); or (referring both to the *progress* and *completion* of the act. "I have been writing a letter" (this week). These forms are used, first, because the *time* (one week) is not wholly past, and secondly, because the *nature* of the act, as before, requires them.

REMARK.—In drilling pupils on tense, it is important, first, to give a clear idea of what is assumed as *present*. It is not always *expressed* as above (*Wednesday, a week*), but is more frequently assumed without notice, merely *implied*; as, "He has written." In the second place, the *nature* or *state* of the act as *indefinite, progressive, completed, or progressive completed*, should be fully exhibited.

105. Future Tense.

1. The *future* tense represents what will take place in future time; as, "I shall see." "I shall be seeing." "I shall be seen."

2. The future, like the simple present or past, is used to denote a future custom; as, "Ephraim shall not envy Judah, and Judah shall not vex Ephraim." "The lion shall eat straw like the ox."

106. Future Perfect Tense.

The *future perfect* tense represents an event as completed in

The proper use of the present perfect, past, and past perfect. Future tense. Future perfect tense.

future time; as, "*I shall have seen.*" "*I shall have been seeing.*" "*I shall have been seen.*"

107. Tenses in all the Modes.

1. The subjunctive mode has *six tenses*—the same as the indicative.

2. The potential mode has *four tenses*—the present, the present perfect, past, and past perfect.

3. The infinitive has *two tenses*—the present and perfect.

4. The imperative has only *one tense*—the present.

5. Tense, in the subjunctive mode, does not usually mark time with the same exactness as in the indicative. Thus,—

(a.) In conditional clauses, if the thing spoken of denote something *actual* or taken as actual, the tense form usually denotes the true time; as, "*If it rained, I did not know it.*" But if it refers to something merely hypothetical or supposed, the past tense represents present time, and the past perfect, past time; as, "*If I were going now (but I cannot), I should ride.*" "*If I had had an opportunity yesterday (but I had none), I should have spoken to him.*"

(b.) The verb *to be* has a distinct form for the past tense used hypothetically, and denoting present time; as, "*If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.*"

(c.) *Were* in this use cannot stand for *would be*, or *would have been*, although in other uses it may; as, "*It were an impossibility to raise the requisite sum.*" *Had*, in like manner, is used for *would*, or *would have*; as, "*I had rather be a dog, and bay the moon, than such a Roman.*" "*It had been better for him if he had pursued the opposite course.*"

6. The tenses in the potential mode have by no means the signification which their *names* denote.

(a.) The present denotes present *possibility, permission, ability, or necessity* to perform an act sometimes *present*, and sometimes *future*; as, "*We may (now) go (to-morrow).*" "*You can (now) write (now).*" "*He must- (now) leave (now, to-morrow, next week).*"

(b.) The present perfect generally denotes a present *possibility, necessity, &c.*, that a past act was performed; as, "*I must have written*" — It is now undeniable that I *wrote* (yesterday).

(c.) The past denotes (1.) a past *possibility, &c.*, to perform an act; as, "*Can you write?*" "*I could write yesterday.*" "*He would often sit the entire evening without uttering a word.*" *Would* and *might* are now seldom, if ever, used to denote past time. (2.) It denotes the present *possibility, &c.*, when followed by a conditional clause; as, "*I might or could go (now) if I*

Tenses of the subjunctive—potential—infinitive and imperative modes. Time denoted by the tense-forms in the subjunctive—in the potential.

would." "I *should* or *would* go (now) if I could." (3.) It denotes a *future possibility*, &c.; as, "I shall not go; but if I *should* go (hereafter), I *could* (hereafter) walk." (4.) It denotes a universal duty without reference to time; as, "Children *should* obey their parents."

(d.) The past perfect denotes usually a past *possibility*, &c., but by no means a past completed act, as in the indicative, thus; "I *could* have assisted you (yesterday) if you had desired it" — I was able to assist you.

7. The infinitive mode has but two tenses, the present and perfect. They denote, the former an indefinite or progressive, and the latter a completed state of the act; as, "*To write*." "*To be writing*." "*To have written*." "*To have been writing*."

(a.) The infinitive, like the participle, may be connected with any mode or tense of the principal verb.

(b.) The present infinitive denotes a time present with that of the principal verb, and not necessarily present with the speaker; as, "I *intend to write*." "I *intended to write*." "I *had intended to write*." "I *shall begin to write*."

(c.) The perfect denotes a past act completed at the time denoted by the principal verb; as, "She *is said to have sung*." "She *was thought to have written*." "She *will be known to have done it*."

8. The imperative has only the present tense, which denotes the time of *giving* a command; the time of its performance is future.

108. Exercise.

1. Tell the TENSES of the following verbs:—

Did you hear the lecture? He listened earnestly. I hope to find the study interesting. It will not rain. Ralph had intended to go. I have heard the Irish orator. We saw the constellation of the Southern Cross. Richard will have learned his lesson by the time we wish to leave. I shall have finished my work when Sarah comes. The child cried. Was the view pleasant? Are the notes of the nightingale sad? Had Anne read the book? The hills were covered with snow.

2. Tell the TENSES of the following verbs; also which denote the RECEPTION of an act, which the PROGRESS, which the COMPLETION of an act, and which an INDEFINITE act:—

The paper is published in Boston. Is he planting the seed? Has Frank been drawing? I shall be allowed to go. When will Caroline go to ride? Have they been to the concert? My brother is teaching. Happiness will be her portion. Sorrow is the common lot. Have you been taught to sing? Had his wife heard the good news? I wish to go. I will not be denied. He shall not forget the penalty. Flowers

Tenses of the infinitive. Time denoted by the infinitive. Time denoted by the imperative.

bloom. Our friends will have gone when you come. Joseph tore the book. What shall I do? William has gained the prize. Have you been to Europe? Fanny has been learning to skate. The clock has struck. Washington was never known to tell a lie. He had been promoted. You do not think so. You will learn to know her better. It shall not be. The general is deceived. Charles has fallen from the tree. He broke his arm. Louisa was carrying the package.

109. Forms of the Verb.

1. *Transitive* verbs may have four forms—the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive*, and the *passive*; as, “I love.” “I do love.” “I am loving.” “I am loved.”

2. The *emphatic* form is confined to the present and past indicative, and the present imperative. The other forms are extended through all the modes and tenses.

3. *Intransitive* verbs may have three forms—the *common*, the *emphatic*, and the *progressive*; as, “I sit.” “I do sit.” “I am sitting.”

4. The *common* form represents an act indefinitely, as a custom, or as completed without reference to its progress; as, “I love.” “I loved.” “I shall love.” “I have loved.”

5. The variations of this form in the second and third persons, as seen in the terminations *est* and *eth*, belong to what is called the *solemn style*. They are found in the Scriptures, in forms of prayer, and in various sacred books.

6. The *emphatic* form represents an act with emphasis; as, “I do write.” “I did write.”

7. This form is used in interrogative or negative sentences without emphasis; as, “Do you write?” “Did you write?” “I do not write.”

8. The *progressive* form represents the *progress* of an unfinished act; as, “I am writing.”

9. In the perfect tenses, it represents the *completion* of a progressive act; as, “I have been writing.” “I shall have been writing.”

10. The *passive* form represents the *reception* of an act; as, “I am loved.” “I was loved.” “I shall be loved.”

11. The perfect tenses of this form are used when we wish to represent the *completion* of a *passive* state; as, “I have been honored.” “I had been honored.” “I shall have been honored.”

The following table gives the form for each division of time, with a description of the state of the act:—

Forms of transitive verbs. Forms of intransitive verbs. Meaning of the forms.

110. Forms for each Division of Time.

I. PRESENT.

	<i>Time.</i>	<i>Act.</i>	<i>Example.</i>
1.	Present.	Indefinite.	He <i>writes</i> .
2.	"	Progressive incomplete.	He <i>is writing</i> ,
3.	"	Complete.	He <i>has written</i> .
4.	"	Progressive complete.	He <i>has been writing</i> .
5.	"	Indefinite emphatic.	He <i>does write</i> .
6.	"	Indefinite received.	The letter <i>is written</i> .
7.	"	Progressive received.	The house <i>is building</i> .
8.	"	Complete received.	The letter <i>has been written</i> .

II. PAST.

1.	Past.	Indefinite.	He <i>wrote</i> .
2.	"	Progressive incomplete.	He <i>was writing</i> .
3.	"	Complete.	He <i>had written</i> .
4.	"	Progressive complete.	He <i>had been writing</i> .
5.	"	Indefinite emphatic.	He <i>did write</i> .
6.	"	Indefinite received.	The letter <i>was written</i> .
7.	"	Progressive received.	The house <i>was building</i> .
8.	"	Complete received.	The letter <i>had been written</i> .

III. FUTURE.

1.	Future.	Indefinite.	He <i>will write</i> .
2.	"	Progressive incomplete.	He <i>will be writing</i> .
3.	"	Complete.	He <i>will have written</i> .
4.	"	Progressive complete.	He <i>will have been writing</i> .
5.	"	Indefinite received.	The letter <i>will be written</i> .
6.	"	Progressive received.	The house <i>will be building</i> .
7.	"	Complete received.	The letter <i>will have been written</i> .

111. Auxiliaries.

1. Auxiliary verbs are those which are used in conjugating other verbs. They are,—

PRES. *Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must.*
 PAST. *Did, was, had, should, would, might, could. —.*

2. The auxiliaries were originally *principal verbs*; and some of them are still used as such.

Eight forms for the present. Eight forms for the past. Seven forms for the future. Auxiliaries.

3. The auxiliary verbs are used to form the modes and tenses of other verbs, and to give to the forms in which they are used, the shades of meaning peculiar to their original signification.

4. In the early stages of the language, these verbs were undoubtedly used as principal verbs followed and modified by the infinitive of what is now called the principal verb: as, *may go*; *can read*; *must sing*; like the Latin *Possum scribere*, or the French *Je puis aller*, or the German *Ich kann schreiben*. Finally, the subordinate infinitive came to be regarded as the principal verb, and that on which it depended became its auxiliary.

5. The auxiliaries should be regarded merely as *form-words*, or words used to form the tenses, and to show relations of *time* and *mode*, as the preposition is used to show relations of *time*, *place*, *origin*, *cause*, *manner*, *property*, *material*, &c. In fact, all words used to show a relation of whatever nature, such as *prepositions*, *relative pronouns*, and *conjunctive adverbs*, are a species of auxiliary. In the progress of language, these auxiliaries have increased, and in the same ratio, the inflection of the principal word has diminished. An exact and familiar acquaintance with their various uses is essential to a correct knowledge of the language. (See 113 below).

6. The auxiliaries, as such, have only two tenses; the *present* and the *past*, except *must*, which has no variation. They may be thus represented:—

112. Conjugation of the Auxiliaries.

Singular.			Plural.		
1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.	1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.
<i>I</i>	<i>Thou</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They.</i>
<i>Present.</i>	Am	art	is	are	are
	Do	dost	does	do	do
	Have	hast	has	have	have
	Will	wilt	will	will	will
	Shall	shalt	shall	shall	shall
	May	mayst	may	may	may
	Can	canst	can	can	can
	Must	must	must	must	must
<i>Past.</i>	Was	wast	was	were	were
	Did	didst	did	did	did
	Had	hadst	had	had	had
	Would	wouldst	would	would	would
	Should	shouldst	should	should	should
	Might	mightst	might	might	might
	Could	couldst	could	could	could

Uses of auxiliaries. Primitive use. Auxiliaries as *form-words*. Conjugation of auxiliaries.

113. Signification of the Auxiliaries.

1. The auxiliaries, deriving much of their force from their original significations, give their own shades of meaning to the tense form into which they enter.

2. **Be**, from the Saxon "beon," *to be fixed, to exist*, denotes *existence*. As an auxiliary, it is the *copula*, used (80, 5) to join an attribute to, and assert its existence in the subject; as, "The heat *is* oppressive."

3. **Do**, from the Saxon "don," *to do*, denotes *action*. As an auxiliary it is used chiefly to give *intensity* of meaning to the action of the principal verb. This it does especially in affirmative sentences, and, to some degree, in negative. But in interrogative sentences, it is little more than a sign of interrogation; as, "I *do* try," "I *did* go;" "He *did* not speak;" "Do you hear it?"

4. **HAVE**, from the Saxon "habban," *to have*, denotes *possession*, and as an auxiliary retains its original meaning in the idea of *completion*; as if an act was not fully possessed by its subject until completed. It seems to have acquired this meaning thus:—In "I have treasures concealed," *have* denotes possession, and is separated from "concealed;" in "I have concealed treasures," it still denotes possession, but is brought into connection with "concealed;" whereas, in "I have concealed the treasures," it is brought into intimate relation with "concealed," which passes from a passive to an active signification, and here we have the idea of possession or *completion* of the act.

5. **SHALL** and **WILL**. *Shall*, from the Saxon "scealan," *to be obliged*, has the primary meaning of *obligation*, and implies an agency, usually personal, by which it is enforced. This agency may be the *determination* of the actor, but is most commonly that of another. *Will*, from the Saxon "willan," *to determine*, denotes *determination, resolution, or purpose*, springing directly from the agent himself. But that which one is under obligation to do, and which, it is determined, he shall do, is not *now* done. Hence, both *shall* and *will* imply futurity. Thus, "You *shall* write," denotes a *present obligation* to perform a *future* act; it implies that *I*, the speaker, have so *resolved*. So, when I say emphatically, "I *shall* write," both the obligation and the resolution pertain to the agent. But when I say it without emphasis, I simply *predict* a future event.

6. Hence, *shall* and *will* have.

(a.) A *complex signification*, when a future event is made to depend upon the determination, resolution, or volition of a personal agent (either the actor or another); as, "He *shall* go" (I so resolve). "I *will* go" (I myself so resolve).

Meaning of the auxiliaries—"Be," "Do," "Have," "Shall," and "Will."
Complex signification of "Shall and "Will."

(b.) A *simple signification*, denoting mere futurity, when a future event is wholly or chiefly independent of *volition* or *resolution*; as, "It will rain" (whatever you or I may resolve); "I shall be overtaken" (independent of my will). In this case the speaker merely *predicts* or expresses an *opinion*. The past tenses *should* and *would* are used with the same or nearly the same significations.

7. Two parties (the speaker sometimes being a third), are necessarily involved in both these cases; the one who *resolves* or *predicts*, and the one who *acts*. Two cases may arise. (1.) Both parties may be represented by the *same* person; as, "I resolve or determine that I will write;" or simply, "I will write." "I predict or believe that I shall write;" or simply, "I shall write." "You resolve that you will write." "You believe or predict that you shall write." (2.) Both parties may be represented, one by one person, and the other by another; as, "I resolve that you shall write;" or simply, "You shall write." "I predict that you will write;" or simply, "You will write." "You resolve that I shall write." "You predict that I shall (not will) write." "He resolves that you shall write." "He predicts that you will write." In interrogative sentences, the same principles prevail, but the *will* or *opinion* of the second person is referred to; as, "Shall he write?" that is, "Is it *your will* or *resolution* that he shall write?" "Will it rain?" that is, "Is it *your opinion* or *prediction* that it will rain?"

A careful inspection of these and similar examples will justify the following rules:—

8. RULE I. *When the person who resolves or predicts is not mentioned, the speaker or FIRST person is always understood in affirmative, and the hearer or SECOND in interrogative sentences*; as, "You shall go." (I will it.) "Shall he go?" (Do you will it?) "It will rain." (I predict it.) "Will it rain?" (Do you predict it?)

9. RULE II. *WILL should be used when the resolution and the action are attributed to the SAME person, and SHALL when they are attributed to DIFFERENT persons*; "I will go." (I myself resolve.) "Will you go?" (Do you yourself resolve?) "He will go." (He himself resolves.) "He shall go." (I resolve.) "They have determined that you shall go." "Shall he go." (Do you resolve?)

10. RULE III. *SHALL should be used when the prediction and the action are both attributed to the SAME person, or in any case, provided the action be attributed to the FIRST person; and WILL should be used when the prediction and the action (except in the case of the first person), are attributed to DIFFERENT persons*; as, "You will be promoted." (I predict it.) "I shall teach, or be a teacher." (I, he, you, or they, predict it.) "Will he

Simple signification of "Shall" and "Will." Parties involved. Rules I. II., III.

teach?" (Do you predict it?) "Will it rain?" (Do you think so?)
 "It will rain." (I think so.)

NOTE.—*Shall* is used in animated discourse, contrary to the last part of Rule III., when the speaker offers an implied pledge that his prediction *shall* be fulfilled; as, "When the precepts of the Gospel shall have been thoroughly inwrought into the lives of men, then *shall* war be known only in history."

11. *MAY*, *CAN*, and *MUST*. *May*, from the Saxon "*magan*," *to be strong*, expressed the primary idea of *power*, and implied a personal agency from *without* employed to remove all *hindrance*. Hence the idea of *permission*. *Can*, is from the Saxon "*cunnan*," *to know*, that is, an intellectual power *within* one's self. Hence the idea of *ability*. *Must* is from the Saxon "*motan*," *to be able*, that is, to be impelled by a power coming—not from any personal agency *without*, as in case of *may*, nor *within*, as in case of *can*—but from the nature, constitution, or fitness of things. Hence, the idea of *necessity*, and, in a moral point of view, *obligation*.

(1.) It will be seen that *may*, *can*, and *must*, agree in the idea of *power*; hence, the term *potential*,—but they differ in the *source* of it. As auxiliaries, they retain much of their original meaning. *May* expresses, in general, *permission*; as, "You *may* visit the country."

12. *May* sometimes denotes *possibility*, and implies *doubt*; as, "It *may* rain." "He *may* have written;" sometimes a petition; as, "*May* it please you."

13. *Might* and *could* also express in past time the same general meaning as in the present; as, "I know I *may* or *can* go." "I knew I *might* or *could* go."

14. *Might*, *could*, *should*, and *would* are used in conditional sentences, *might* in one clause answering to *could* in the other, when *power*, *ability*, or *inclination* is implied; as, "He *might* sing, if he *could* or *would*." So, "He *could* sing, if he *would*." "He *would* sing, if he *could*." Sometimes the conditional clause is omitted. "He *might* write." "He *could* write." "He *would* write." In all these examples a *present possibility*, *liberty*, &c., is referred to. When *past time* is referred to, we use the *past perfect* tense; as, "He *might* have written, if he *would* (have written)."

114. Exercise.

1. In the following sentences, do *SHALL* and *WILL* resolve or predict?—

I will go to the party. You shall not leave the room. It will be a sad day for him. He shall do as I tell him. Eugene will come to see me. I shall go to see my sister. I shall see him to-morrow. In the

Signification and uses of "*May*," "*Can*," "*Must*," "*Might*," "*Could*," "*Would*," and "*Should*."

day that thou eatest thereof, thou shalt surely die. Thou wilt show me the path of life. He will be elected. Perhaps I shall find my book. I will fear no evil. I will dwell in the house of my God for ever. Shall I go to ride? Will Florence do it? In spite of all your objections, I will do it. The sun will shine. The clock will strike. Shall you go to the lecture? When will the time come? Will the earl do well?

2. *Correct the following examples by giving and explaining the right use of SHALL and WILL:—*

I will receive a letter when my brother comes. If they make the changes, I do not think I will like them. Will we have a good time, if we go? Perhaps you shall find the purse. I will be unhappy if you do not come. I will be afraid if it is dark. Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me, and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever. I resolve that he will return with me. I will be obliged to you. I will be punished. What sorrow will I have to endure! The moon shall give her light. Will I write? He is resolved that Mary will go. If we examine the subject, we will perceive the error. I will suffer from poverty; nobody shall help me. When shall you go with me? Where will I leave you?

3. *Study the following Models for Analysis, and explain the auxiliaries:—*

We are marching *Are* is an auxiliary verb, denotes present time, and asserts a thing as actual; *marching* is a present participle, denoting a progressive act; hence *are marching* is the present tense, indicative mode, progressive form.

I do write *Do* is an auxiliary verb, denotes the present tense, asserts a thing as actual, and imparts emphasis; *write* denotes the act used indefinitely; hence *do write* is the present indicative, emphatic form.

He will sing *Will* is an auxiliary verb, denotes future time (simply predicts), and asserts a thing as actual; *sing* denotes the act used indefinitely; hence *will sing* is in the future tense, indicative mode.

He has conquered . . . *Has* is an auxiliary verb, denotes present time, is a sign of completed action, and asserts a thing as actual; *conquered* is the past participle of *conquer*, denoting a completed or perfect act; hence *has conquered* is the present perfect, indicative.

I had been writing . . . *Had* is an auxiliary verb, denotes past time, is a sign of completion, and with *been* asserts a thing as actual; *been* is the past participle of the auxiliary *to be*, and is used to denote completion;

Models for analysis.

writing is the present participle of *write*, formed by adding *ing* (25, 3), and denotes a progressive act; hence *had been writing* is the past perfect progressive, indicative.

They will have fought. *Will* is an auxiliary verb; it denotes future time (simply predicts), and asserts a thing as actual; *have* is a sign of completion; hence *will have* is the sign of future completion; *fought* is the past participle of *fight*; it denotes completion; hence *will have fought* is the future perfect tense, indicative.

I may read *May* is an auxiliary verb; it denotes present time, asserts a thing as imagined or thought of (not as actual), and gives permission; *read* denotes an indefinite act; hence *may read* is the present potential, common form.

If he is detained *Is* is an auxiliary verb, denotes present time, and of itself asserts a thing as actual, but under the influence of *if*, asserts a thing as doubtful and conditional; *detained* is a passive participle, denoting the reception of an act; hence *is detained* is the present passive, subjunctive.

4. In the same manner analyze the following examples:—

The tempest has passed. The sun was rising. I shall be satisfied. The sailor would have been discharged, if he had not given a satisfactory excuse. The boys were anxious to go. Leslie hoped to have finished the work before the storm approached. Go to the prison. Write an answer. The letter may have been delayed. If you should write a correct lesson, you would be commended.

5. Write three examples of the emphatic indicative past; three of the progressive past perfect; four of the progressive potential past perfect; also any other which your teacher may give.

6. Tell the MODE, TENSE, and FORM of each of the following verbs:—

Shepherd, lead on. Sweet is the breath of morn. These are thy works. He will be coming. Silence filled the courts of heaven. Thus far shalt thou go. He leads them forth through golden portals. Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again. Do thou in secret pray. If thy brother die, he shall live again. By that time he will have been reaping his wheat. They must go to rest. He has been studying his lesson. The sun will have set when I reach home. He sunk to repose where the red heaths are blended.

Models for analysis.

115. Uses of the Auxiliaries—formation of Tenses.

1. The auxiliaries may combine, to form the tenses,—

- (a.) With *participles* ; as, “ I *am writing* ; He *was loved* ; We *have written*.
- (b.) With *infinitives* (111, 4) ; as, I *may write* ; They *shall read*.
- (c.) With both united ; as, I *may have learned*.

2. In the indicative mode they combine as follows :—

(a.) Abs. tenses.	Pres.	{ Emp. form, <i>do love</i> ,—inf. and <i>do, dost, does</i> . Prog. form, <i>am loving</i> ,—pres. part. and <i>am, is, art, are</i> . Pas. form, <i>am loved</i> ,—pas. part. and <i>am, is, art, are</i> .
	Past.	{ Emp. form, <i>did love</i> ,—inf. and <i>did, didst</i> . Prog. form, <i>was loving</i> ,—pres. part. and <i>was, wast, were</i> . Pas. form, <i>was loved</i> ,—pas. part. and <i>was, wast, were</i> .
	Fut.	{ Com. form, <i>shall love</i> ,—inf. and <i>shall, shalt, will, wilt</i> . Prog. form, <i>shall be loving</i> ,—inf. of <i>be</i> , and pres. part. with <i>shall, shalt, will, wilt</i> . Pas. form, <i>shall be loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>be</i> , and pas. part. with <i>shall, shalt, will, wilt</i> .
(b.) Rel. tenses.	Pres. perf.	{ Com. form, <i>have loved</i> ,—past part. and <i>have, hadst, has</i> . Prog. form, <i>have been loving</i> ,—past part. <i>been</i> , and pres. part. with <i>have, hast, has</i> . Pas. form, <i>have been loved</i> ,—past part. <i>been</i> , and pas. part. with <i>have, hast, has</i> .
	Past perf.	{ Com. form, <i>had loved</i> ,—past part. and <i>had, hadst</i> . Prog. form, <i>had been loving</i> ,—past part. <i>been</i> , and pres. part. with <i>had, hadst</i> . Pas. form, <i>had been loved</i> ,—past part. <i>been</i> , and pas. part. with <i>had, hadst</i> .
	Fut. perf.	{ Com. form, <i>shall have loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , and past part. with <i>shall, shalt, will, wilt</i> . Prog. form, <i>shall have been loving</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , past part. of <i>been</i> , and pres. part. with <i>shall, shalt, will, wilt</i> . Pas. form, <i>shall have been loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , and past part. <i>been</i> , and pas. part. with <i>shall, shalt, will, wilt</i> .

Formation of tenses.

3. In the potential mode they combine as follows—

(a.) Abs. tenses.	Present.	Com. form, <i>may love</i> ,—inf. and <i>may, mayst, can, canst, must</i> . Prog. form, <i>may be loving</i> ,—inf. of <i>be</i> , and pres. part. with <i>may, mayst, can, canst, must</i> . Pas. form, <i>may be loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>be</i> and pas. part. with <i>may, mayst, can, canst, must</i> .
	Past.	Com. form, <i>might love</i> ,—inf. and <i>might, mightst, could, couldst, should, shouldst, would, wouldst</i> . Prog. form, <i>might be loving</i> ,—inf. of <i>be</i> , and pres. part. with <i>might, mightst, could, couldst, would, wouldst, should, shouldst</i> . Pas. form, <i>might be loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>be</i> , and pas. part. with <i>might, mightst, could, couldst, would, wouldst, should, shouldst</i> .
(b.) Rel. tenses.	Pres. perf.	Com. form, <i>may have loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , and past part. with <i>may, mayst, can, canst, must</i> . Prog. form, <i>may have been loving</i> , inf. of <i>have</i> , past part. <i>been</i> , and pres. part. with <i>may, mayst, can, canst, must</i> . Pas. form, <i>may have been loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , past part. <i>been</i> , and pas. part. with <i>may, mayst, can, canst, must</i> .
	Past perf.	Com. form, <i>might have loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , and past part. with <i>might, mightst, could, couldst, would, wouldst, should, shouldst</i> . Prog. form, <i>might have been loving</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , past part. <i>been</i> , and pres. part. with <i>might, mightst, could, couldst, should, shouldst, would, wouldst</i> . Pas. form, <i>might have been loved</i> ,—inf. of <i>have</i> , past part. <i>been</i> , and pas. part. with <i>might, mightst, could, couldst, should, shouldst, would, wouldst</i> .

4. With the exception of the distinctive form in the present and past (107, 5, 6), the subjunctive mode has the same tense-forms as the indicative or potential, with *if, unless, though, &c.*, prefixed; as, "*If I love.*" "*If I may love.*"

Formation of tenses. Tense-forms in the subjunctive.

5. The imperative mode has but one tense, the *present*, which is used generally without the subject expressed, and in all the four forms of the verb; as, *Study; be thou studying; be thou loved; do write.*

6. The infinitive mode has two tenses—the *present* and the *perfect*. The *present* is used in the *common*, the *progressive*, and the *passive* forms of the verb, and is formed by prefixing “*to*” to the simple verb for the common form,—“*to be*” to the present participle for the progressive form, and “*to be*” to the passive participle for the passive form; as, *to write, to be writing, to be written.*

The *perfect* is used in the *common*, the *progressive*, and the *passive* forms of the verb, and is formed by prefixing *to have* to the past participle of the verb for the common form,—*to have been* to the present participle for the progressive form,—and *to have been* to the passive participle for the passive form; as, *to have written; to have been writing; to have been written.*

7. The *present* participle is formed by adding *ing* to the simple verb; as, *writing.*

The *past* participle is formed for regular verbs by adding *ed* to the simple verb (25, 3); as, *honored.*

The *perfect* participle is formed by prefixing *having* to the past participle of the verb for the common form,—*having been* to the present participle for the progressive form,—and *having been* to the passive participle for the passive form; as, *having written; having been writing; having been written.*

116. Number and Person of the Verb.

1. The number and person of the verb are properties which show its agreement with the subject. Like the subject, the verb has two numbers and three persons.

2. The *first* person singular, and the *first*, *second*, and *third* persons plural, of the present tense indicative, in all verbs (*am, are, was, were*, excepted) are alike. The *second* person singular is like the first, except in the solemn or ancient style, when it is formed by adding *st*, or *est*, to the first person; as, “*Thou lovest me not.*” The *third* person singular is formed from the first, by adding *s* or *es*; in ancient style it ends in *eth*; as, “*He goeth.*” Verbs ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i*, and add *es*, to form the third person singular; as, *try, tries.*

3. By a figure of *enallage* (236, 8), the second person plural of the pronoun and verb is substituted, in conversational and familiar style, for

Tense-forms in the imperative—infinitive. Formation of present participle—past part.—perf. part. Number and person.

the second person singular ; as, "Hubert, *you are* sad" = Hubert, *thou art* sad.

4. The imperative mode has usually only the second person ; as, Go, thou." In some languages, the imperative has also a form for the first person plural, and third person singular and plural. A few examples seem to occur in English ; as, "Rise, thy sons." "Be it decreed." Most of these cases, however, can be explained by supplying an ellipsis ; as, "Let thy sons rise" "Let it be decreed."

117. Conjugation.

1. The *conjugation* of a verb is the regular arrangement of its several *modes, tenses, voices, numbers, and persons*.

2. The only tenses which change their termination are the *present* and *past* ; as, sit, *sittest*, sits ; sat, *satest*, tarry, *tarriest*, tarries ; tarried, *tarriedst*. All other changes are made by means of auxiliaries.

3. In adding *s* or *es*, observe the same rules as in the formation of the plural of nouns ; as, play, *plays* ; fly, *flies* ; go, *goes*. So, also, observe the rules (25) for the changes of the radical verb ; as, drop, *dropped* (Rule I.) ; reply, *replied* (Rule III.).

4. The *principal parts* of a verb are the *present indicative*, the *past indicative*, and the *past participle*.

EXAMPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Explain,	explained,	explained.
Rely,	relied,	relied.
Write,	wrote,	written.
Shine,	shone,	shone.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.

118. Exercise.

1. Give the principal parts of the following verbs :—

Sail, smile, see, shut, close, open, burn, glaze, gild, turn, try, reform, renew, take, leave, make, build, hope, fold, alter, correct.

2. Study the following Models :—

"Thou hast gone to thy rest."

Hast gone . is a *verb*—it expresses being, action, or state ; irregular—it

Conjugation. Change of termination. Principal parts. Models.

does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed*;—*principal parts*—pres. *go*, past, *went*, past part. *gone*;—*intransitive*—it does not require an object to complete the meaning; *common form*—it represents an act as completed without reference to its progress; *indicative mode*—it asserts a thing as actual;—*present perfect tense*—it expresses an action completed in present time;—*second person, singular number*, to agree with its subject *thou*.

Abbreviated form :—

Has gone . is an *irreg. intransitive verb*,—*go*, *went*, *gone*, *indicative mode*, *present perfect tense*, 2d *person, sing. number*, to agree with its subject *thou*. Or, for the slate, thus :—is a V. ir. int. ind.—pres. perf.—2d per. sing.

3. In the following examples explain the VERBS in the same manner :—

We read of that philosophy, which can smile over the destruction of property, of that religion, which enables its possessor to extend the benign look of forgiveness and complacency to his murderers; but it is not in the soul of man to bear the lacerations of *slander*.

“Lord, and what shall this man do?”

Ask'st thou, Christian, for thy friend?

If his love for Christ be true,

Christ hath told thee of his end;—

This is he whom God approves,

This is he whom Jesus loves.—*Keble*.

And the raven never flitting, still is sitting, still is sitting

On the pallid bust of Pallas, just above my chamber door;

And his eyes have all the seeming of a demon's that is dreaming,

And the lamplight o'er him streaming throws his shadow on the floor,

And my soul from out that shadow that lies floating on the floor,

Shall be lifted—nevermore!—*E. A. Poe*.

119. Conjugation of the verb TO BE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am,
2. Thou art,
3. He is;

Plural.

We are,
(Ye or) You are,
They are.

Conjugation of *to be*.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have been,
2. Thou hast been,
3. He has been ;

Plural.

- We have been,
 You have been,
 They have been.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I was,
2. Thou wast,
3. He was ;

Plural.

- We were,
 You were,
 They were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had been,
2. Thou hadst been,
3. He had been ;

Plural.

- We had been,
 You had been,
 They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall or will be,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be,
3. He shall or will be ;

Plural.

- We shall or will be,
 You shall or will be,
 They shall or will be.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall or will have been,
2. Thou shalt or wilt have been,
3. He shall or will have been ;

Plural.

- We shall or will have been,
 You shall or will have been,
 They shall or will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE. /

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may be,
2. Thou mayst be,
3. He may be ;

Plural.

- We may be,
 You may be,
 They may be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have been,
2. Thou mayst have been,
3. He may have been ;

Plural.

- We may have been,
 You may have been,
 They may have been.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might be,	We might be,
2. Thou mightst be,	You might be,
3. He might be;	They might be.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might have been,	We might have been,
2. Thou mightst have been,	You might have been,
3. He might have been;	They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I am,	If we are,
2. If thou art,	If you are,
3. If he is;	If they are.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I have been,	If we have been,
2. If thou hast been,	If you have been,
3. If he has been;	If they have been.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I was,	If we were,
2. If thou wast,	If you were,
3. If he was;	If they were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I had been,	If we had been,
2. If thou hadst been,	If you had been,
3. If he had been;	If they had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will be,	If we shall or will be,
2. If thou shalt or wilt be,	If you shall or will be,
3. If he shall or will be;	If they shall or will be.

Conjugation of *to be*.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall *or* will have been,
2. If thou shalt *or* wilt have been,
3. If he shall *or* will have been ;

Plural.

- If we shall *or* will have been,
 If you shall *or* will have been,
 If they shall *or* will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

NOTE.—Besides the forms already given, the subjunctive has another in the present and past, peculiar to itself.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I be,
2. If thou be,
3. If he be ;

Plural.

- If we be,
 If you be,
 If they be.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I were,
2. If thou wert,
3. If he were ;

Plural.

- If we were,
 If you were,
 If they were.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

Be, *or* Be thou ;

Plural.

Be ye *or* you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Present Perfect.*

To be.

To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.

Past. Been.

Perfect. Having been.

NOTE.—Synopsis is a short view of the verb, showing its forms through the modes and tenses in a single number and person, thus : In the first person singular, we have, *IND. Pres.* I am ; *Pres. Per.* I have been ; *Past,* I was ;

Conjugation of *to be*.

Past Perf. I had been; *Fut.* I shall be; *Fut. Per.* I shall have been. *Pot.* I may be; *Pres. Per.* I may have been; *Past,* I might be; *Past. Perf.* I might have been. *SUB. Pres.* If I am, &c.

120. Exercise.

1. *In what mode and tense are the following VERBS ?—*

I am. He has been. If I were. You can be. He might be. To have been. They were. He will have been. You might be. She had been. You will be. To be. I must have been. Thou art. If he be. If you are. They might have been. We were. I had been. Thou wast. He is.

2. *Give a synopsis of TO BE, in the IND. second person singular,—sec. per. plur.,—first per. plur.,—third per. sing.,—third per. plur. Pot. third per. sing.—sec. per. plur.—third per. plur. SUB. sec. per. sing.,—sec. per. plur.—third per. plur.—first per. plur.*

121. Conjugation of the regular verb TO LOVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I love,
2. Thou lovest,
3. He loves;

Plural.

- We love,
- You love,
- They love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have loved,
2. Thou hast loved,
3. He has loved;

Plural.

- We have loved,
- You have loved,
- They have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I loved,
2. Thou lovedst,
3. He loved;

Plural.

- We loved,
- You loved,
- They loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had loved,
2. Thou hadst loved,
3. He had loved;

Plural.

- We had loved,
- You had loved,
- They had loved.

Conjugation of *to love*.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will love,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt love,
3. He shall *or* will love;

Plural.

- We shall *or* will love,
 You shall *or* will love,
 They shall *or* will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall *or* will have loved,
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt have loved,
3. He shall *or* will have loved;

Plural.

- We shall *or* will have loved,
 You shall *or* will have loved.
 They shall *or* will have loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may love,
2. Thou mayst love,
2. He may love;

Plural.

- We may love,
 You may love,
 They may love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I may have loved,
2. Thou mayst have loved,
2. He may have loved;

Plural.

- We may have loved,
 You may have loved,
 They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might love,
2. Thou mightst love,
3. He might love;

Plural.

- We might love,
 You might love,
 They might love.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I might have loved,
2. Thou mightst have loved,
3. He might have loved;

Plural.

- We might have loved,
 You might have loved,
 They might have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I love,
2. If thou lovest,
3. If he loves;

Plural.

- If we love,
 If you love,
 If they love.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I have loved,	If we have loved,
2. If thou hast loved,	If you have loved,
3. If he has loved ;	If they have loved.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I loved,	If we loved,
2. If thou lovedst,	If you loved,
3. If he loved ;	If they loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I had loved,	If we had loved,
2. If thou hadst loved,	If you had loved,
3. If he had loved ;	If they had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will love,	If we shall or will love,
2. If thou shalt or wilt love,	If you shall or will love,
3. If he shall or will love ;	If they shall or will love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I shall or will have loved,	If we shall or will have loved,
2. If thou shalt or wilt have loved,	If you shall or will have loved,
3. If he shall or will have loved ;	If they shall or will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I love,	If we love,
2. If thou love,	If you love,
3. If he love ;	If they love.

PAST TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I loved,	If we loved,
2. If thou loved,	If you loved,
3. If he loved ;	If they loved.

Conjugation of to love.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

Love, or love thou;

Plural.

Love, or Love you.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present. To love.*Perfect.* To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Loving.*Past.* Loved.*Perfect.* Having loved.

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am loved,
2. Thou art loved,
3. He is loved;

Plural.

- We are loved,
- You are loved,
- They are loved.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I have been loved,
2. Thou hast been loved,
3. He has been loved;

Plural.

- We have been loved,
- You have been loved,
- They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. I was loved,
2. Thou wast loved,
3. He was loved;

Plural.

- We were loved,
- You were loved,
- They were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I had been loved,
2. Thou hadst been loved,
3. He had been loved;

Plural.

- We had been loved,
- You had been loved,
- They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. I shall or will be loved,
2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved,
3. He shall or will be loved;

Plural.

- We shall or will be loved,
- You shall or will be loved,
- They shall or will be loved.

 Conjugation of to love.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will have been loved, | We shall or will have been loved, |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt have been loved, | You shall or will have been loved, |
| 3. He shall or will have been loved ; | They shall or will have been loved. |

POTENTIAL MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I may be loved, | We may be loved, |
| 2. Thou mayst be loved, | You may be loved, |
| 3. He may be loved ; | They may be loved. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved, | We may have been loved, |
| 2. Thou mayst have been loved, | You may have been loved, |
| 3. He may have been loved ; | They may have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I might be loved, | We might be loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst be loved, | You might be loved, |
| 3. He might be loved ; | They might be loved. |

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved, | We might have been loved, |
| 2. Thou mightst have been loved, | You might have been loved, |
| 3. He might have been loved ; | They might have been loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Regular form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. If I am loved, | If we are loved, |
| 2. If thou art loved, | If you are loved, |
| 3. If he is loved ; | If they are loved. |

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. If I have been loved, | If we have been loved, |
| 2. If thou hast been loved, | If you have been loved, |
| 3. If he has been loved ; | If they have been loved. |

Conjugation of *to love*.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I was loved,
2. If thou wast loved,
3. If he was loved ;

Plural.

- If we were loved,
If you were loved,
If they were loved.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I had been loved,
2. If thou hadst been loved,
3. If he had been loved ;

Plural.

- If we had been loved,
If you had been loved,
If they had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I shall *or* will be loved,
2. If thou shalt *or* wilt be loved,
3. If he shall *or* will be loved ;

Plural.

- If we shall *or* will be loved,
If you shall *or* will be loved,
If they shall *or* will be loved.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.

- 1 If I shall *or* will have been loved,.
- 2 If thou shalt *or* wilt have been loved,
- 3 If he shall *or* will have been loved ;

Plural.

- If we shall *or* will have been loved,
If you shall *or* will have been loved,
If they shall *or* will have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE. (*Subjunctive form.*)

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I be loved,
2. If thou be loved,
3. If he be loved ;

Plural.

- If we be loved,
If you be loved,
If they be loved.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.

1. If I were loved,
2. If thou wert loved,
3. If he were loved ;

Plural.

- If we were loved,
If you were loved,
If they were loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

Be loved, *or* Be thou loved ;

Plural.

Be loved, *or* Be you loved.

Conjugation of *to love*.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present. To be loved. *Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved. *Past (passive).* Loved.
Perfect. Having been loved.

122. Interrogative and Negative Forms.

1. A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* in the indicative and potential modes, by placing the subject after it, or after the first auxiliary; as, IND. Do I love? Have I loved? Did I love? Had I loved? Shall I love? Shall I have loved? POT. Can I love? Can I have loved? &c.

2. A verb is conjugated *negatively*, by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary; but the negative adverb should be placed before the infinitive and participles; as, IND. I love not, or I do not love. I have not loved. I loved not, or I did not love. I had not loved, &c. INF. Not to love. Not to have loved. PART. Not loving. Not loved. Not having loved.

3. A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* and *negatively*, in the indicative and potential modes, by placing the *subject*, and the adverb *not*, after the verb, or after the first auxiliary; as, Love I not? or Do I not love? Have I not loved? Did I not love? Had I not loved? &c.

123. Exercise.

1. Tell the mode, tense, voice, number, and person of the following VERBS:—

She has loved. I might love. We had loved. We had been loved. He may have loved. If I be loved. I love. He will love. He shall have loved. I have loved. They shall have loved. She is loved. We may be loved. You might have been loved. If I love. If they love. They may love. We will love. I had loved. Thou hast loved. Thou wilt have loved. I love. Thou art loved. He was loved. She will have been loved.

2. Write or repeat a full conjugation of the following verbs:—

Believe, defy, think.

3. Conjugate the first of the above verbs *interrogatively*, the next *negatively*, and the third *interrogatively* and *negatively*.

Verbs conjugated interrogatively and negatively.

4. Give a synopsis of either of the above verbs in either form, in the first, second, or third person.

124. Synopsis—Progressive and Emphatic Forms—Verb Read.

NOTE.—The progressive form is the verb *to be* joined to the *present participle*. The pupil should be careful not to mistake this for the passive form, which is the verb *to be* joined to the *passive participle*. In the emphatic form the auxiliary *do* is added to the simple verb for the present, and *did* for the past. It is found only in the indicative and imperative modes.

IND. I am reading, I have been reading, I was reading, I had been reading, I shall be reading, I shall have been reading. **POT.** I may be reading, I may have been reading, I might be reading, I might have been reading. **SUB.** If I am or be reading, if I have been reading, if I was or were reading, if I had been reading, if I shall be reading, if I shall have been reading. **IMP.** Be thou reading. **INF.** To be reading, to have been reading. **PART.** Reading, having been reading.

Indicative. I do read, I did read. *Imperative.* Do thou read.

125. Exercise.

1. Write or repeat a full conjugation of write, lend, play, in the progressive form.

2. Give a synopsis of either of the above verbs in the second and third persons, singular and plural.

3. Tell the difference between the progressive and passive forms. (See Note above.)

126. Forms for each division of time combined.

THE VERB TO MAKE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	1st Sing. I	2d Sing. THOU	3d Sing. HE, SHE, IT,
1. Indef.	make,	makest,	makes.
2. Prog. incomp.	am making,	art making,	is making.
3. Comp.	have made,	hast made,	has made.
4. Prog. comp.	have been making,	hast been making,	has been making.
5. Ind. emp.	do make,	dost make,	does make.
6. Pas. ind.	am made,	art made,	is made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	is making.
8. Pas. comp.	have been made,	hast been made,	has been made.

Synopsis of the Progressive and Emphatic Forms. All the forms combined.

	<i>1st Plur.</i>	<i>2d Plur.</i>	<i>3d Plur.</i>
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
1. Indef.	make,	make,	make.
2. Prog. incomp.	are making,	are making,	are making.
3. Comp.	have made,	have made,	have made.
4. Prog. comp.	have been making,	have been making,	have been making.
5. Ind. emp.	do make,	do make,	do make.
6. Pas. ind.	are made,	are made,	are made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	are making.
8. Pas. comp.	have been made,	have been made,	have been made.

PAST TENSE.

	<i>1st Sing.</i>	<i>2d Sing.</i>	<i>3d Sing.</i>
		THOU	HE, SHE, IT,
1. Indef.	made,	madest,	made.
2. Prog. incomp.	was making,	wast making,	was making.
3. Comp.	had made,	hadst made,	had made.
4. Prog. comp.	had been making,	hadst been making,	had been making.
5. Ind. emp.	did make,	didst make,	did make.
6. Pas. ind.	was made,	wast made,	was made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	was making.
8. Pas. comp.	had been made,	hadst been made,	had been made.

	<i>1st Plur.</i>	<i>2d Plur.</i>	<i>3d Plur.</i>
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
1. Indef.	made,	made,	made.
2. Prog. incomp.	were making,	were making,	were making.
3. Comp.	had made,	had made,	had made.
4. Prog. comp.	had been making,	had been making,	had been making.
5. Ind. emp.	did make,	did make,	did make.
6. Pas. ind.	were made,	were made,	were made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	were making.
8. Pas. comp.	had been made,	had been made,	had been made.

FUTURE TENSE.

	<i>1st Sing.</i>	<i>2d Sing.</i>	<i>3d Sing.</i>
		THOU	HE, SHE, IT,
1. Indef.	will make,	wilt make,	will make.
2. Prog. incomp.	will be making,	wilt be making,	will be making.
3. Comp.	will have made,	wilt have made,	will have made.
4. Prog. comp.	will have been making,	wilt have been making,	will have been making.
5. Ind. emp.	—,	—,	—.
6. Pas. ind.	will be made,	wilt be made,	will be made.
7. Pas. prog.	—,	—,	will be making.
8. Pas. comp.	will have been made,	wilt have been made,	will have been made.

All the forms combined.

	1st Plur.	2d Plur.	3d Plur.
	WE	YE or YOU	THEY
1. Indef.	will make,	will make,	will make.
2. Prog. incomp.	will be making,	will be making,	will be making.
3. Comp.	will have made,	will have made,	will have made.
4. Prog. comp.	will have been making,	will have been making,	will have been making.
5. Ind. emp.	—,	—,	—.
6. Pas. ind.	will be made,	will be made,	will be made.
7. Pas. prog.	—;	—,	will be making.
8. Pas. comp.	will have been made,	will have been made,	will have been made.

127. Irregular Verbs.

1 An *irregular verb* is one which does not form its past tense and past participle by adding *ed* to the present tense; as, *see, saw, seen; write, wrote, written*.

1. The following list contains the principal parts of the irregular verbs. Those verbs which are marked R. have also the regular forms, and those which are *italicized* are either obsolete or are becoming so:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am,	Was,	Been.
Arise,	Arose,	Arisen.
Awake,	Awoke, R.	Awaked.
Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>),	Bore, <i>bare</i> ,	Born.
Bear (<i>to carry</i>),	Bore, <i>bare</i> ,	Borne.
Beat,	Beat,	Beaten, beat.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend,	Bent, R.	Bent, R.
Bereave,	Bereft,	Bereft, R.
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.
Bid,	Bid, <i>bade</i> ,	Bidden, bid.
Bind, <i>Un-</i>	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten, bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke, <i>brake</i> ,	Broken, <i>broke</i> .
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build, <i>Re-</i>	Built, R.	Built, R.
Burn,	Burnt, R.	Burnt, R.
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught, R.	Caught, R.
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden, <i>chid</i> .

List of Irregular verbs.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave (<i>to adhere</i>),	Cleaved, <i>clave</i> ,	Cleaved.
Cleave (<i>to split</i>),	Clove, cleft, <i>clave</i> ,	Cleft, <i>cloven</i> , <i>z</i> .
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clad, <i>z</i> .	Clad, <i>z</i> .
Come, <i>Be-</i> ,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Crow,	Crew, <i>z</i> .	Crowed.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare (<i>to venture</i>),	Durst,	Dared.
Dare (<i>to challenge</i>), <i>is z</i> .	Dared,	Dared.
Deal,	Dealt, <i>z</i> .	Dealt, <i>z</i> .
Dig,	Dug, <i>z</i> .	Dug, <i>z</i> .
Do, <i>Mis-</i> , <i>Un-</i> , <i>Out-</i> ,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Dream,	Dreamt, <i>z</i> .	Dreamt, <i>z</i> .
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk, drank.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.
Dwell,	Dwelt, <i>z</i> .	Dwelt, <i>z</i> .
Eat,	Ate, eat,	Eaten.
Fall, <i>Be-</i> ,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forbear,	Forbore,	Forborne.
Forget,	Forgot,	Forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Freight,	Freighted,	Fraught, <i>z</i> .
Get, <i>Be-</i> , <i>For-</i> ,	Got,	Got, gotten.
Gild,	Gilt, <i>z</i> .	Gilt, <i>z</i> .
Gird, <i>Be-</i> , <i>En-</i> ,	Girt, <i>z</i> .	Girt, <i>z</i> .
Give, <i>For-</i> , <i>Mis-</i> ,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave, <i>En-</i> ,	Graved,	Graven, <i>z</i> .
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Hang (<i>to take life</i> , <i>z</i> .)	Hung,	Hung.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Heave,	Hove, <i>z</i> .	Hoven, <i>z</i> .
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn, <i>z</i> .
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden, hid.
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Hold, <i>Be-, With-</i> ,	Held,	Held, <i>holden.</i>
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kept,	Kept.
Kneel,	Knelt, <i>r.</i>	Knelt, <i>r.</i>
Knit,	Knit, <i>r.</i>	Knit, <i>r.</i>
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade, <i>to load (to dip, r.),</i>	Laded,	Laden.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Let,	Let,	Let.
Lie (<i>to recline</i>),	Lay,	Lain.
Light,	Lit, <i>r.</i>	Lit, <i>r.</i>
Load,	Loaded,	Laden, <i>r.</i>
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant.
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown, <i>r.</i>
Pay, <i>Re-</i> ,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen (<i>to enclose</i>),	Pent, <i>r.</i>	Pent, <i>r.</i>
Put,	Put,	Put.
Quit,	Quit, <i>r.</i>	Quit, <i>r.</i>
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Ride,	Rode, <i>rid</i> ,	Ridden, <i>rid</i>
Ring,	Rang, <i>rung</i> ,	Rung.
Rise, <i>A-</i> ,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven, <i>r.</i>
Rot,	Rotted,	Rotten, <i>r.</i>
Run,	Ran, <i>run</i> ,	Run.
Saw,	Sawed,	Sawn, <i>r.</i>
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Seethe,	Sod, <i>r.</i>	Sodden, <i>r.</i>
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.
Send,	Sent,	Sent.
Set, <i>Be-</i> ,	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Shaped,	Shapen, <i>r.</i>
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaven, <i>r.</i>
Shear,	Sheared,	Shorn, <i>r.</i>
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Shine,	Shone, <i>r.</i>	Shone, <i>r.</i>
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Show,	Showed,	Shown.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shrink,	Shrunk, <i>shrank</i> ,	Shrunk.
Shut,	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sang, <i>sung</i> ,	Sung.
Sink,	Sunk, <i>sank</i> ,	Sunk.
Sit,	Sat,	Sat.
Slay,	Slew,	Slain.
Sleep,	Slept,	Slept.
Slide,	Slid,	Slidden, <i>slid</i> .
Sling,	Slung, <i>slang</i> ,	Slung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit, <i>r.</i>	Slit,	Slit, <i>r.</i>
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten, <i>smit</i> .
Sow (<i>to scatter</i>),	Sowed,	Sown, <i>r.</i>
Speak, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spoke, <i>spake</i> ,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spell,	Spelt, <i>r.</i>	Spelt, <i>r.</i>
Spend, <i>Mis-</i> ,	Spent,	Spent.
Spill,	Spilt, <i>r.</i>	Spilt, <i>r.</i>
Spin,	Spun, <i>span</i> ,	Spun.
Spit, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spit, <i>spat</i> ,	Spit.
Split,	Split,	Split.
Spread, <i>Be-</i> ,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprang, <i>sprung</i> ,	Sprung.
Stand, <i>With-, &c.</i> ,	Stood,	Stood.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode, <i>strid</i> ,	Stridden, <i>strid</i> .
Strike,	Struck,	Struck, <i>stricken</i> .
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.
Strow, or <i>strew, Be-</i> ,	Strowed or <i>strewed</i> ,	Strown, <i>strewn</i> .
Swear,	Swore, <i>sware</i> ,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat, <i>r.</i>	Sweat, <i>r.</i>
Sweep,	Swept,	Swept.
Swell,	Swelled,	Swollen, <i>r.</i>
Swim,	Swam, <i>swum</i> ,	Swum.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take, <i>Be-, &c.</i> ,	Took,	Taken.
Teach, <i>Mis-, Re-</i> ,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore, <i>tare</i> ,	Torn.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think, <i>Be-</i> ,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve, <i>r.</i>	Thriven, <i>r.</i>
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden, <i>trod</i> .

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxed, R.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Wet,	Wet, R.	Wet, R.
Whet,	Whet, R.	Whet, R.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound, R.	Wound.
Work,	Wrought, R.	Wrought, R.
Wring,	Wrung, R.	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

128. Exercise.

1. Give the past and past participle of teach, sing, write, read, hurt, sit, arise, take, beat, tell, &c., &c.

2. Give the present and past for the following past participles:—Thrown, sworn, swum, built, spoken, stolen, &c., &c.

3. Correct the following examples, and give the number and person of each:—

The blossoms have fell from the trees. Mary come to school in haste. Sarah's exercise is wrote badly. The thief stoled the money and telled a falsehood about it. The lake is froze hard. Charles has took the wrong course. The bell ringed loud. The soldiers fit bravely. She did not git the premium. The exercise is wrote badly. James has not spoke the truth. A sad misfortune has befell him. The carriage was drawn by four horses. Being weary I laid down and ris much refreshed. The ball was throwed too high. I see the soldiers when they come. The wind has blowed the fruit from the trees, and broke the branches. He sit down upon the bank. The cattle were drove to pasture. After he had strove many times he wonned the prize. The bee stinged Nellie badly. Edwin has took my knife. The sky has wore a cloudy aspect for several days. She singed the song well. The cars have ran off the track. Grandmother has weaved the cloth beautifully. Who teachd him grammar? These apples have growed very fast. He clinged to the mast. He give me some money. Anna stringed the beads quickly. The vessel has hove in sight. She springed a leak. The stone smit him in the face. The river has overflown its banks. seen Harry when he done it.

129. Defective Verbs.

1. *Defective verbs* are those in which some of the principal parts are wanting.

Defective verbs. •

2. They are *may*, *can*, *shall*, and *will*, which have the past tense, but no participles; *must*, and *ought*, which have neither a past tense nor participles; *quoth*, which has neither a present tense nor participles.

3. When *must* refers to past time, it is used in the present perfect tense; as, "He must have left." When *ought* refers to past time, it is followed by the perfect infinitive; as, "He ought to have written."

4. *Quoth* is now seldom used. *Beware* (*be ware* or *wary*) is used mostly in the imperative mode; as, "Beware of dogs."

130. Impersonal Verbs.

1. An *impersonal* verb is one by which an action or state is asserted independently of any particular subject; as, "It rains." "It snows."

2. *Methinks*, *methought*, *meseems*, *meseemed*, may be regarded as impersonal, or rather unipersonal verbs. They are equivalent to *I think*, *I thought*, *It seems*, *it seemed to me*.

131. Exercise.

1. Study the following models for parsing the verb :—

(Full form.)

- (1.) Give the part of speech, and tell why
- (2.) Tell whether it is regular or irregular, and why.
- (3.) Give the principal parts.
- (4.) Tell whether it is transitive or intransitive, and why.
- (5.) " the voice and form, and why
- (6.) " mode, and why.
- (7.) " tense, and why.
- (8.) Inflect the tense.
- (9.) Tell the number and person, and why.
- (10.) Give the rule.

(Abbreviated form.)

- (1.) It is a regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive verb, (if transitive) active or passive form.
- (2.) Principal parts.
- (3.) Mode.
- (4.) Tense.
- (5.) Number and person.
- (6.) Construction and rule.

Must and *ought* denoting past time. *Quoth*. Impersonal verbs. Models for parsing.

EXAMPLES.

2. "Sarah has written a letter."

Has written . . . is a verb (why?); *principal parts* (pres. *write*, past *wrote*, past part. *written*); *transitive* (why?); *active voice* (why?); *common form* (why?); *indicative mode* (why?); *present perfect tense*;—it is formed by prefixing *have*, which both denotes present time and is the sign of completion, to the past participle *written*, which denotes completion—(*I have written, thou hast written, he has written; we have written, you have written, they have written*); *third person, singular number*, to agree with its subject *Sarah*, according to Rule IV.: "The verb must agree with its subject in number and person."

3. "She can play."

Can play is a verb (why?); *regular* (why?); *principal parts*; *intransitive* (why?); *common form* (why?); *potential mode* (why?); *present tense* (why?); (analyze and inflect it) *third person, singular number* (why?). Rule IV.

4. "America was discovered by Columbus."

Was discovered . is a *regular transitive verb, passive voice*—or simply a *regular passive verb*—the subject is represented as acted upon; (*discover, discovered, discovered,*) *indicative mode* (why?); *past tense* (why?); (analyze (114, 3) and inflect it), *third person, singular number*, and agrees with its subject, *America*, according to Rule IV.

5. "I love to see the sun shine."

To see is an *irregular transitive verb, active voice, &c., infinitive mode* (why?); *present tense*, and limits *love*, according to Rule XVI.: "The infinitive has the construction of the noun," &c.

Shine is an *irregular intransitive verb* (*shine, shone, shone*), *infinitive mode, present tense*, and limits *see*.

6. "If they were reading the book."

Were reading . . is an *irregular transitive verb, active voice, progressive form* (why?) *subjunctive mode* (why?), &c.

7. "Has he come?"

Has come is an *irregular intransitive verb, common form* (conjugated interrogatively), &c.

Models for parsing.

8. *Add an object, and change the following transitive verbs from the active to the passive voice:—*

Mary loved. They read. Henry lost. The children played. Augustus threw. Anna found. He rowed. Hear. The father punished. Jane broke. Give. Will you lend? Thus: Mary loved the truth = The truth was loved by Mary.

9. *Change the following transitive verbs from the passive to the active form, and supply a subject when it is omitted:—*

America was discovered in 1492. Religious liberty was established in Rhode Island. The Magna Charta was granted to the English. The Mexicans were defeated at Buena Vista. The king was concealed in the tree. The retreat of the Greeks was conducted very skilfully. A great battle was fought at Marathon. The gunpowder plot was discovered. King Charles was restored to the throne in 1660. Paradise Lost was written by Milton. The Messiah was written by a distinguished poet. Thus: *Christopher Columbus* discovered America in 1492.

10. *Parse the VERBS in the following examples; also the NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS and PARTICIPLES:—*

In August, even, not a breeze can stir but it thrills us with the breath of autumn. A pensive glory is seen in the far, golden gleams, among the shadows of the trees.—*Hawthorne*.

Reproach did not spare Braddock, even in his grave. Still his dauntless conduct on the field of battle shows him to have been a man of fearless spirit; and he was universally allowed to be an accomplished disciplinarian. Whatever may have been his faults and errors, he expiated them by the hardest lot that can befall a brave soldier, ambitious of renown—an unhonored grave in a strange land; a memory clouded by misfortune, and a name for ever coupled with defeat.—*Irving*.

Now, by the skies above us, and by our fathers' graves,
Be men to-day, Quirites,—or be forever slaves!—*Macaulay*.

Many a night from yonder ivied casement, ere I went to rest,
Did I look on great Orion, sloping slowly to the west.
Many a night I saw the Pleiads, rising through the mellow shade,
Glitter like a swarm of fire-flies tangled in a silver braid.—*Tennyson*.

Models for parsing.

ADVERBS.

132. Definition.

1. An *adverb* is a word used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, *adjective*, *participle*, or other *adverb*; as, "He learns *quickly*."

2. When an idea, however expressed, is put in such relation to a verb, an adjective, a participle, or an adverb, as to represent some circumstance of *place*, *time*, *cause*, or *manner*, it is adverbial, because it is placed in an adverbial relation in the sentence. The same idea placed in relation to a noun or pronoun is of the nature of an adjective; as, "He who acts *uprightly*, is an *upright* man."

3. When an adverbial idea is expressed by a single word, that word is called an *adverb*; as, "He walks *slowly*." The relation is determined either by the termination, the position, or the meaning. When the idea is expressed by a noun, the relation is expressed by a preposition; as, "The affair was managed *with prudence*" = *prudently*. In this case the *phrase*, consisting of the preposition and noun, is said to be *adverbial*. When the idea is expressed by a *proposition*, the relation is expressed by a conjunctive adverb. Here the *clause*, consisting of a connective, subject, and predicate, is adverbial; as, "Speak *so that you can be understood*" = *distinctly*.

4. Words properly called adverbs are abridged expressions. They take the place of phrases consisting of a preposition and noun; as, "He lived *there*" = *in that place*. "He conducted *wisely*" = *in a wise manner*.

5. Sometimes an adverb seems to qualify a noun, and thereby to partake of the nature of an adjective; as, "I found the boy *only*."

6. Sometimes an adverb modifies a phrase, or an entire proposition; as, "*Far* from home." "The old man *likewise* came to the city."

133. Exercise.

1. *Point out the ADVERBS in the following sentences:—*

She sang sweetly. The wind moaned mournfully over her grave. O, lightly, lightly tread. The storm raged fearfully. When shall I see you again? They lived very happily. They were agreeably disappointed. Do you expect them to-morrow? She is continually changing her mind. It cannot be true. Perhaps I shall go. Doubtless it is true. George writes elegantly.

2. *Insert the following adverbs in sentences of your own:—*

Where, hopefully, soon, bravely, yes, surely, undeniably, sorrowfully, briefly, quite, below, above, ever, constantly, so, yet, although, no.

Adverbs. Expressions in an adverbial relation. A single word—a phrase—a clause. Adverbs equivalent to phrases. Adverbs used as adjectives.

134. Classes of Adverbs.

1. Adverbs may be divided into four general classes—adverbs of *place*, of *time*, of *cause*, of *manner*.

2. Adverbs of *place* answer the questions Where? Whither? Whence? as, *here, there, above, yonder, below, somewhere, back, upwards, downwards, &c.*

3. Adverbs of *time* answer the questions When? How long? How often? as, *then, yesterday, always, continually, often, frequently, &c.*

4. Adverbs of *cause* answer the questions Why? Wherefore? as, *why, wherefore, therefore, then.*

5. Causal relations are commonly expressed by *phrases* and *clauses*.

6. Adverbs of *manner* and *degree* answer the question How? as, *elegantly, faithfully, fairly, &c.* They are generally derived from adjectives denoting quality.

7. Under the head of *degree* may be classed those which answer the question How? in respect to *quantity* or *quality*; as, *How much? How good? &c.*; as, *too, very, greatly, chiefly, perfectly, mainly, wholly, totally, quite, exceedingly.*

8. *Modal adverbs*, or those which show the manner of the *assertion*, belong to this class also. The following are the principal modal adverbs: *yes, yea, verily, truly, surely, undoubtedly, doubtless, forsooth, certainly, no, nay, not, possibly, probably, perhaps, peradventure, perchance.*

9. The adverbs *when, where, why, how, &c.*, when used in asking questions, are called *interrogative adverbs*; as, "*When did he come?*"

10. Adverbs of *manner* are generally formed from adjectives by adding *ly*; as, *bright, bright-ly*; *smooth, smooth-ly*. But when the adjective ends in *ly*, the *phrase* is commonly used; as, "*In a lovely manner,*" instead of *lovelily*.

11. *There* is used as an expletive to introduce a sentence when the verb *to be* denotes existence; as, "*There are many men of the same opinion.*" It is also sometimes used with the verbs *seem, appear, come, go*, and others; as, "*There went out a decree from Cæsar Augustus.*" In this use it has no meaning.

12. The adverb *so* is often used as a substitute for some preceding word or group of words; as, "*He is in good business, and is likely to remain so.*"

135. Conjunctive Adverbs.

1. *Conjunctive adverbs* are those which express the adverbial

Classes of adverbs—place—time—cause—manner—degree. Modal adverbs. Interrogative adverbs. *There* as an expletive. The adverb *so*. Conjunctive adverbs.

relation of a dependent clause, and connect it with the verb, adjective, or adverb, which it modifies; as, "I shall meet my friend *when* the boat arrives."

2. The principal conjunctive adverbs will be found under the head of connectives (143, 18). They are equivalent to two phrases, the one containing a relative pronoun, the other its antecedent; as, "The lilies grow *where* the ground is moist" = The lilies grow *in that place in which* the ground is moist. Here the phrase *in that place* modifies *grows*, and the phrase *in which* modifies *moist*; hence *where*, the equivalent of the two, modifies both.

3. The words *therefore, wherefore, hence, whence, consequently, then, now, besides, likewise, also, too, moreover*, and some others, are adverbs, and at the same time are used—either alone or when associated with other connectives, to join propositions. But unlike conjunctive adverbs, they connect coördinate and not subordinate clauses.

136. Exercise.

1. Tell the class of the following adverbs:—

Very, greatly, perhaps, therefore, below, to-morrow, when, there, purely, truly, always, continually, yesterday, why, sorrowfully, painfully, down, above, here, vainly, exceedingly.

2. Point out the conjunctive adverbs in the following examples:—

He will be prepared when the time arrives. She may return whenever she wishes. He disobeyed the rule, although he knew it was wrong. Whither I go ye cannot come. I mourn because I have lost my friend.

137. Comparison of Adverbs.

1. Many adverbs, especially those denoting manner, admit of comparison; as, *brightly, more brightly, most brightly; soon, sooner, soonest*.

2. When an adjective undergoes comparison, it shows that two or more objects are compared; but when an adverb undergoes the same change, it shows that two or more actions or qualities are compared; as, "James *speaks* more fluently than George [*speaks*]."

3. The following adverbs are compared irregularly: *Ill* or *badly, worse, worst; little, less, least; far, farther, farthest; much, more, most; well, better, best*.

Conjunctive adverbs equivalent to two phrases. The adverbs *therefore, &c.* Comparison of adverbs. Irregular comparison.

138. Exercise.

1. Study the following outline for parsing adverbs:—

To parse an adverb, tell,—

- (1.) What part of speech it is, and why.
- (2.) Compare it (where it admits of it), and tell what degree.
- (3.) Tell what it modifies.
- (4.) Give the rule.

2. "The sun shines *brightly*."

Brightly is an *adverb*; it modifies the meaning of the verb; it is compared (positive *brightly*, comparative *more brightly*, superlative *most brightly*); it is in the *positive degree*, and modifies the verb *shines*, according to Rule IX. (Repeat it.)

3. "Mary writes *more elegantly* than her brother."

More elegantly . is an *adverb*; it modifies the meaning of the verb; it is compared (*elegantly*, *more elegantly*, *most elegantly*); it is in the *comparative degree*, and modifies the verb *writes*, according to Rule IX. (Repeat it.)

4. "I will go *whenever* you wish."

Whenever is a conjunctive adverb of time. (Why?)

(1.) As an adverb it modifies both *will go* and *wish*, according to Rule IX.

(2.) As a connective it connects the subordinate clause "whenever you wish" to *will go*. Rule XI.

5. Parse the ADVERBS in the following examples; also the ADJECTIVES, VERBS, and PRONOUNS:—

No human fancy can take in this mighty space in all its grandeur, and in all its immensity; can sweep the outer boundaries of such a creation; or lift itself up to the majesty of that great and invisible arm, on which all is suspended.—*Chalmers*.

He (Sir Thomas More) stands unchangeably on the centre of eternal right; his head, majestically erect, gloriously lifted up to heaven, bends not before the shock, and his breast receives the tempest only to shiver it.—*Giles*.

Hitherto shalt thou come, and no further, and here shall thy proud waves be stayed.

Models for parsing.

I

Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
 Who never to himself hath said,—
 This is my own, my native land!
 Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
 As home his footsteps he hath turned,
 From wandering on a foreign strand?—*Scott.*

PREPOSITIONS.

139. Definition.

1. A *preposition* is a word used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word; as, "The ship was seen *from* the citadel." "He sailed *upon* the ocean *in* a ship *of* war."

2. The preposition always shows a relation between two terms, an *antecedent* and a *subsequent*. The subsequent term is called the *object* of the preposition. The preposition and object united form a dependent element of the sentence, having the antecedent term as its principal element.

3. The preposition always shows a relation of dependence. When the antecedent term is a noun, the dependent phrase is of the nature of an adjective; as, "The rays *of* the sun" = *solar* rays.

When the antecedent term is a verb, participle, adjective, or adverb, the dependent phrase is of the nature of an adverb (sometimes an indirect object); as, "The case was conducted *with* skill" = *skilfully*.

4. The *object* of the preposition is not always a single word; it may be a *phrase* or *clause*; as, "The city was *about* to capitulate when Napoleon arrived." "Much will depend *on* *who* the commissioners are."

5. The preposition is sometimes placed after its object; as, "While its song, sublime as thunder, rolls the woods *along*." The preposition and object sometimes precede the word on which they depend; as, "*Of* all patriots, Washington was the noblest."

140. List of Prepositions.

aboard,	before,	for,	through,
about,	behind,	from,	throughout,
above,	below,	in, into,	till,
according to,	beneath,	'mid,	to,
across,	beside or	'midst,	touching,

Prepositions. Two terms—antecedent and subsequent. The subsequent, a dependent term. The object. The preposition sometimes after its object. List of prepositions.

after,	besides,	notwithstanding,	toward or
against,	between,	of,	towards,
along,	betwixt,	for,	under,
amid or	beyond,	on,	underneath,
amidst,	by,	out of,	until,
among or	concerning,	over,	unto,
amongst,	down,	past,	up,
around,	during,	regarding,	upon,
at,	ere,	respecting,	with,
athwart,	except,	round,	within,
bating,	excepting,	since,	without.

1. *According to, as to, as for, out of, instead of, because of, off from, over against, round about, from among, from between, from around, from before, and the like*, may be regarded as *complex prepositions*, and parsed as a single word; or the first word of the phrase may be parsed as an *adverb*. *According, contrary*, in the phrases *according to, contrary to*, are sometimes regarded as *participles* or *adjectives* modifying some noun in the sentence.

2. In such connections as the following, *put in, go up, go down, cut through, pass by, climb up*, and others, the preposition may be parsed as an *adverb* when it is not followed by an object; as the italicised words in such sentences as the following: "The captain stood *in* for the shore." "They rode *by* in haste."

3. Some words, most commonly prepositions, are occasionally used as adverbs; these are, *before, after, till, until, above, beneath, for, on, in, &c.* So also some words commonly employed as adverbs, are sometimes used as prepositions; as, *but, save, despite, &c.* *Off* is usually an adverb, but may be parsed as a preposition when followed by an object. *Instead* is either a preposition, or equivalent to a preposition and noun = *in stead*.

4. In such expressions, as, *a hunting, a fishing, &c.*, if authorized at all, the *a* may be regarded as itself a preposition, or a contraction of *at, in, or on*.

141. Exercise.

1. Study the following outline for parsing the preposition:—

To parse a preposition, tell,—

- (1.) What part of speech, and why.
- (2.) Between what words it shows the relation.
- (3.) Give the rule.

2. "He went *from* England to France."

From . is a *preposition*;—it is used to show the relation of a noun or pro-

Complex prepositions. Prepositions used as adverbs. Models for parsing.

noun to some other word;—it shows the relation of the noun *England* to the verb *went*, according to Rule XIII. (Repeat it.)

To . . . is a *preposition*; it shows the relation of the noun *France* to the verb *went*, according to Rule XIII.

3. Point out the **PREPOSITIONS** in the following sentences, and explain their relations:—

He heard the birds sing in the morning. The buds are swelling in the sun's warm rays. The winds will come from the distant south. The bees gather honey from the flowers. I bring fresh showers for the thirsty flowers from sea and stream. I shall be Queen of the May. In the garden the crocus blooms. The hills are covered with a carpet of green. We shall have pleasant walks with our friends. We shall seek the early fruits in the sunny valley.

4. Parse the **NOUNS, PRONOUNS, ADVERBS, and PREPOSITIONS** in the following sentences:—

Humility mainly becometh the converse of man with his Maker,
But oftentimes it seemeth out of place in the intercourse of man with
man,

Yea, it is the cringer to his equal, that is chiefly seen bold to his God,
While the martyr whom a world cannot browbeat, is humble as a child
before Him.—*Tupper*.

Of all the thoughts of God that are
Borne inward unto souls afar,
Along the Psalmist's music deep—
Now tell me if there any is,
For gift or grace surpassing this—
“He giveth His beloved, sleep”?—*Mrs. Browning*.

CONJUNCTIONS.

142. Definition.

1. A *conjunction* is a word used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences; as, “The horse fell over the precipice, *but* the rider escaped.” “The horse *and* rider fell over the precipice.”

In the first example, *but* connects two sentences; in the second, *and* connects the two parts, *horse* and *rider*.

2. A pure conjunction forms no part of the material (158, 1) or substance of a sentence; its office is simply to unite the materials into a single structure.

Conjunctions. Pure conjunctions.

8. Besides pure conjunctions, there is a large class of words which enter into the sentence as a part of its substance, and at the same time connect different elements or parts; as, "This is the pencil *which* I lost." Here *which* is the object of *lost*, and at the same time connects the dependent clause, *which I lost*, to *pencil*. All such words are called *connectives*, or *conjunctive words*.

143. Classes of Connectives.

1. All connectives (whether pure conjunctions or conjunctive words) are divided into two classes—*coördinate* and *subordinate*. *Coördinate* connectives are those which join similar or homogeneous elements; as, "*John AND James* were disciples."

Here *John* and *James* are similar in construction, and have a common relation to the predicate.

2. Two elements are coördinate, and consequently demand a coördinate conjunction, when they are placed in the same relation or rank (159, 1); as, "The insects devoured *leaves* and *blossoms*." Here *leaves* is dependent on *devoured*; *blossoms* also is not only dependent, but has precisely the same sort of dependence as *leaves*; hence they are coördinate with each other. In the sentence, "The insects devoured the leaves greedily," *leaves* and *greedily* are both dependent on *devoured*, but they have not a similar dependence; hence they are not coördinate, and cannot be connected by *and*, or any other coördinate conjunction.

3. Coördinate connectives are always conjunctions, and may be divided into three classes—*copulative*, *adversative*, and *alternative*.

4. *Copulative* conjunctions are those which add parts in harmony with each other; as, "The day dawned, *and* our friends departed."

5. The copulative conjunctions are,—

(a.) *And*, a connective of the most general character, placing the connected parts in a relation of perfect equality, without modification or emphasis.

(b.) *So*, *also*, *likewise*, *too*, *besides*, *moreover*, *furthermore*, *now*, *hence*, *whence*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *consequently*, *even*; connectives associated with *and* expressed or understood, and used to give *emphasis*, or some additional idea; as, "She sings; [and] *besides* she plays beautifully."

(c.) *Not only . . . but*, *but also*, *but likewise*, *as well . . . as*, *both . . . and*, *first . . . secondly*, *thirdly*, &c.; connectives employed when we wish not only to make the second part emphatic, but to awaken an expectation of some

Connectives or conjunctive words. Classes of connectives. Coördinate connectives. Copulative conjunctions.

addition. As these parts correspond to each other, these connectives are called *correlatives*.

6. *Adversative* conjunctions are those which unite parts in opposition to, or in contrast with, each other; as, "The fish was brought to the shore, *but* plunged into the water again."

7. Adversative conjunctions are employed, (1.) When the second part is placed in opposition to the first; as, "It does not rain, *but* it snows." (2.) When the second part is placed in opposition to a supposed inference from the first; as, "The army was victorious, *but* the general was slain." Here, lest the inference should be that all was prosperous, the second clause preceded by *but*, is added.

8. The adversative conjunctions are,—

(a.) *But*, which simply shows opposition without emphasis; as, "I shall go, *but* I shall not walk."

(b.) *Yet, still, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however, now*, and some others, which are associated with *but*, either expressed or understood, and give emphasis or some additional idea; as, "The delinquent has been repeatedly admonished, (but) *still* he is as negligent as ever."

9. *Alternative* conjunctions are those which offer or deny a choice between two things; as, "We must fight, *or* our liberties will be lost." "She can *neither* sing *nor* play."

10. The alternative conjunctions are,—

(a.) *Or*, which offers, and *nor* (not or), which denies a choice.

(b.) *Else, otherwise*, associated with *or* for the sake of emphasis.

(c.) *Either* and *neither*, correlatives of *or* and *nor*.

11. Parts standing in a causal relation to each other are sometimes coördinate; but usually there are, in such cases, two connectives, one expressed and the other understood; as, "The south wind blows, [*and*] *therefore*, there must be rain."

12. *Subordinate* connectives are those which join dissimilar or heterogeneous elements; as, "I shall go *when* the stage arrives."

Here *when* joins the subordinate clause, *when the stage arrives*, to the verb *shall go*. It is a part of the clause itself, being equivalent to *at the time at which*. Hence it should be introduced in naming the clause; but not so with the pure coördinate conjunctions.

13. The connected element is always a proposition; it is subordinate, and consequently demands a subordinate connective, because it becomes merely a limiting expression of the antecedent term on which it depends. It is unlike the part with which it is connected, in its form, in its relation or rank, and in its grammatical character.

Adversative conjunctions. Alternative conjunctions. Subordinate connectives.

14. A subordinate connective, like a preposition, always shows a relation of dependence. But the second term is a proposition, instead of a noun or pronoun.

15. Subordinate connectives are divided into three classes—those which connect *substantive* clauses, those which connect *adjective* clauses, and those which connect *adverbial* clauses.

16. Substantive clauses containing a statement, (170, 3) are connected by the conjunctions *that*, *that not*, and sometimes *but*, *but that*. Substantive clauses containing an inquiry, are connected by the interrogatives *who*, *which*, *what*, *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *when*, *how long*, *how often*, *why*, *wherefore*, *how*.

17. Adjective clauses are connected by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, and sometimes the relative adverbs *why*, *when*, *where*.

18. Adverbial clauses are connected by the conjunctive adverbs *where*, *whither*, *whence*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*, *as far as*, *as long as*, *farther than*, which denote *PLACE*; *when*, *while*, *whilst*, *as*, *before*, *after*, *ere*, *till*, *until*, *since*, *whenever*, *as long as*, *as soon as*, *the moment*, *the instant*, *as frequently as*, *as often as*, which denote *TIME*; or the conjunctions *because*, *for*, *as*, *whereas*, *since*, *inasmuch* (causal), *if*, *unless*, *though*, *lest*, *except*, *provided*, *provided that* (conditional), *that*, *that not*, *lest* (final), *though*, *although*, *notwithstanding*, *however*, *whatever*, *whoever*, *whichever*, *while*, with the cor-relatives *yet*, *still*, *nevertheless* (adversative), all of which denote *CAUSAL* relations; *as*, *just as*, *so . . . as*, *same . . . as* (correspondence), *so . . . that*, *such . . . that* (consequence), *as . . . as* (comparison of equality), *the . . . the*, *the . . . so much the* (proportionate equality), *than*, *more than*, *less than* (comparison of inequality), which denote *MANNER*.

144. Exercise.

1. Study the following outline for parsing conjunctions.

In parsing a conjunction or connective, tell,—

- (1.) What part of speech, and why.
- (2.) To what class it belongs.
- (3.) What elements it connects.
- (4.) Give the rule.

2. "Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers."

And . . . is a conjunction;—it is used to connect sentences, or the parts of sentences; *coördinate*, because it connects similar elements;

Subordinate connectives show a relation of dependence. Connectives of clauses—substantive—adjective—adverbial.

it connects *Socrates* and *Plato*, according to Rule XI. (Repeat it.)

3. "Wisdom is better *than* riches."

Than . . is a *conjunction* (why?); *subordinate*, because it connects dissimilar elements; it connects the proposition *than riches* (are) with *better*, according to Rule XVI. (Repeat it.)

4. "We must *either* obey or be punished."

Either . . is a *coördinate conjunction* (alternative), used to awaken expectation of an additional element, and also to introduce it with emphasis.

Or . . . is a *coördinate conjunction* (alternative), and with its correlative *either* is used to connect the predicate *must be punished* with *must obey*. Rule XI. (Repeat it.)

5. "Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him."

Though . is a *subordinate conjunction* (adversative), used to awaken expectation of an additional idea.

Yet . . . is a *subordinate conjunction* (adversative), and with its correlative *though* is used to connect the subordinate clause, "*he slay me*," with the principal one, "*will I trust in him*," according to Rule XVI.

6. Tell which of the following connectives are *coördinate*, and which are *subordinate* :—

The pen and ink are poor. The horse and the rider were plunged into the water. If you come, I shall have the work in readiness. When the million applaud, seriously ask yourself what harm you have done. He knew that he had disobeyed instructions. That which cannot be cured must be endured. Take heed lest ye fall.

7. Parse the CONJUNCTIONS, ADJECTIVES, and VERBS, in the following examples :—

It is to the Union that we owe our safety at home, and our consideration and dignity abroad. Every year of its duration has teemed with fresh proof of its utility and its blessings; and, although our territory has stretched out wider and wider, and our population spread further and further, they have not outrun its protection or its benefits.—*Webster*.

In a word, point us to the loveliest and happiest neighborhood in the world on which we dwell,—and we tell you that our object is, to render this whole earth, with all its nations, and kindreds, and tongues, and people, as happy as, nay, happier than such a neighborhood.—*Wayland*.

Models for parsing.

Thy Hector, wrapped in everlasting sleep,
Shall neither hear thee cry, nor see thee weep.—*Pope*.

'Twas but a kindred sound to move,
For pity melts the heart to love.—*Dryden*.

INTERJECTIONS.

145. Definition.

1. An interjection is a word used to express some strong or sudden emotion of the mind. "Alas! I then have chid away my friend."

2. As the interjection is not the sign of an idea, but merely an expression of emotion, it cannot have any definable signification, or grammatical construction; but as it is of frequent use in colloquial and impassioned discourse, it should not be omitted in parsing.

3. "Interjection" is derived from the Latin word "interjectus"—*thrown between*, that is, between the parts of the sentence; but it is often placed at the beginning, or at the end of a sentence.

4. The most common interjections are, *hey, hurra, huzza*, expressing joy or exultation; *aha, hah, ah*, expressing surprise; *ho, lo, halloo, hem*, calling attention; *fie, pshaw, pugh, tush, foh*, expressing aversion or contempt; *alas, woe, alack, O*, expressing sorrow, grief, or compassion; *hst, hush, mum*, expressing a wish for silence; *heigh-ho, heigh-ho-hum*, expressing languor; *ha, ha, he, he*, expressing laughter.

5. Some words used as interjections may be parsed as verbs, nouns, or adjectives; as in the sentence "*Strange!* cried I." *Strange* is an adjective, and the expression is equivalent to "it is strange;" and in the sentence, "Behold! how well he bears misfortune's frowns!" *behold* is a verb in the imperative, equivalent to *behold ye*.

146. Exercise.

1. *Outline for parsing an interjection:—*

To parse an interjection, tell,—

- (1.) What part of speech, and why?
- (2.) Give the rule.

2. "Hark! they whisper."

Hark is an interjection (why?); it is used independently. Rule X.

3. *Parse all the words in the following examples:—*

Oh! say what mystic spell is that which so blinds us to the suffer-

Interjections. Its derivation. The most common interjections. Interjections used as verbs, &c.

ings of our brethren,—which deafens our ear to the voice of bleeding humanity, when it is aggravated by the shriek of dying thousands.—*Chalmers.*

Woe worth the chase! woe worth the day!
That cost thy life, my gallant grey.—*Scott.*

Oh, now you weep; and I perceive you feel
The dint of pity; these are gracious drops.
Kind souls! What! weep you when you but behold
Our Cæsar's vesture wounded! Look you here!
Here is himself, marred as you see, with traitors.—*Shakspeare.*

Hail! holy light, offspring of heaven first born,
Or of the eternal, co-eternal beam! — *Milton.*

Philosophy consists not
In airy schemes or idle speculations;
But the rule and conduct of all social life
Is her great province. Not in lone cells
Obscure she lurks, but holds her heavenly light
To senates and to kings to guide their counsels,
And to teach them to reform and bless mankind.
All policy but hers is false and rotten;
All valor not conducted by her precepts,
Is as destroying fury sent from hell,
To plague unhappy man, and ruin nations.

SYNTAX.

147. Definitions and Distinctions.

1. SYNTAX treats of the construction of sentences.

2. A *sentence* is a thought expressed in words; as, "Socrates was unmoved when the sentence of death was pronounced against him."

3. Thus, it appears that a sentence (Lat. "*sententia*," a *thought*) includes a *thought* and its *expression*. A thought consists of related *ideas*, an expression of related *words*; and, if every idea were expressed by a corresponding word, a sentence would be correctly analyzed by reducing it to its separate words. Thus, in the sentence,—“Peter wept bitterly,” or (analyzed), “Peter—wept—bitterly,” the three ideas—the *person*, *what he did*, and *how he did it*, are expressed by as many words; but in the sentence above—“Socrates—was unmoved—when the sentence of death was pronounced against him,”—three full ideas are expressed by twelve words.

4. In analyzing a sentence, therefore, we must be governed either by its *ideas*, and, of necessity, group all words employed to express a single idea,—or, by its *words*, and thus, in many cases, lose sight of an inseparable idea by reducing its expression to single words. Thus, in the example above (3.) the element of *time* is expressed by a group containing nine words; yet, to one who should not first consider the group as a *whole*, but take its words separately, the idea of time would scarcely be suggested. In the one case, the sentence is considered *logically*,—in the other *grammatically*.

5. Each word, however, has its office, being used either alone, or as part of a group to express an element of the thought. A system of syntax, to be complete, should, therefore, treat of the sentence, (1.) as a *whole*,—an expression of the thought; (2.) as a combination of *words*—or *groups of words*,—expressions of ideas or elements of the thought; and (3.) as an assemblage of mere *words*, each performing its peculiar office in forming the component parts of the structure. Hence, the subject is naturally divided into syntax of *sentences*, syntax of *elements*, and syntax of *words*.

Syntax. A sentence. Thought and its expression. Ideas and words. Analysis based upon ideas—upon words. Office of single words. Syntax of sentences, of elements, of words.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

148. Sentences classified by their use as a whole.

1. All sentences, considered as a whole, are either

- (a.) DECLARATIVE; as, "The truth will prevail."
- (b.) INTERROGATIVE; as, "Wilt thou be made whole?"
- (c.) IMPERATIVE; as, "Put up thy sword into the sheath;" or
- (d.) EXCLAMATORY; as, "How art thou fallen!"

2. A *declarative* sentence is used to declare something either as real and absolute, or as possible, probable, obligatory, or necessary; as, "I have found favor in the sight of the king;" "It may rain;" "We should pay our debts;" "The work must be done."

3. The declarative sentence forms the main body of every species of composition; it is that form of the sentence which is recognised by logicians as a proposition. It may take either the positive or the negative form; its mode may be either indicative or potential (89, 10, 11).

4. The *interrogative* sentence is one which asks a question; as, "Doth my father yet live?"

5. Interrogative sentences are used

- (a.) To obtain information; as, "Where are those mine enemies?"
- (b.) To gain the assent of others; as, "Doth God pervert judgment?"

6. The latter are called questions of appeal, and are used with a negative when the speaker expects an affirmative answer; as, "Hath he said it, and will he *not* do it?" without a negative when he expects a negative answer; as, "Can a mother forget her child?" Such sentences imply a strong affirmation or negation, and, hence, when converted into declarative sentences, the foregoing rule should be reversed; as, "God doth *not* pervert judgment." "He hath said it, and he *will* do it."

7. Interrogative sentences may take either of two forms;—

- (a.) They may be formed without an interrogative word; as, "Will you ride to town to-day?" or,
- (b.) They may be introduced by one of the interrogatives, *who, which, what, where, when, why, how, &c.* (78, 2, 5).

8. The former are called *direct*,—are answered by *yes* or *no*, and are generally uttered with the rising inflection at the close.

9. The latter are called *indirect*,—are answered by some part of a declarative sentence called the *responsive* or *answer*; as, "Who is walk-

Sentences classified. Declarative and interrogative sentences. Direct and indirect questions.

ing in the garden?" Ans. "*I*" (am walking in the garden). These sentences close with the falling inflection.

10. An *imperative* sentence is one which is used to express a command, an entreaty, an exhortation, or a prayer; as, "Let justice be done;" "Do extricate my suffering friend;" "Let love be without dissimulation;" "Thy kingdom come."

11. The imperative sentence may take two forms,—

(a.) The verb may be in the imperative; as, "*Depart* in peace."

(b.) It may be in the potential; as, "*May* he *depart* in peace."

12. An imperative sentence of the same form is a command, an entreaty, or a prayer, according to the relative rank of the parties (89, 14).

13. An *exclamatory* sentence is either a declarative, an interrogative, or an imperative sentence, so uttered as to express strong emotion; as, "The foe has come!" "Was it not strange!" "Make haste!"

14. Exclamatory sentences are often so elliptical as to become mere fragments; as, "Strange!" "Impossible!" "To arms!"

15. Exclamatory expressions are often of the nature of interjections; as "Mercy!" "How strange!"

16. When a sentence is composed of two different classes, it is called a *mixed sentence*; as, "Give me a place to stand, and I will raise the world;" "They entered, indeed, upon the work, but why did they not continue?"

149. Exercise.

Point out the different kinds of sentences in the following examples. Construct or select others like them. Change any of them from one class of sentence to another.

NOTE.—The learner should first read the sentence attentively, and then consider, whether, as a whole, it declares something, asks a question, expresses a command, or utters an exclamation.

Thou shalt not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain. Though he slay me, yet will I trust him. What think ye of Christ? Whose son is he? Would God I had died for thee, O Absalom! my son! my son! Is this a dagger that I see before me? The way was long, the wind was cold. Strike! till the last armed foe expires!

Great Hierarch! tell thou the silent sky,
And tell the stars, and tell the rising sun,
Earth, with her thousand voices, praises God.—*Coleridge*.

Imperative sentences. Exclamatory sentences. Mixed sentences.

They tell us, sir, that we are weak—unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be the next week, or the next year? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone: it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. The war is inevitable—and let it come. Our brethren are already in the field. Why stand we here idle? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God!—I know not what course others may take; but as for me—give me liberty, or give me death!—*Patrick Henry.*

150. Sentences classified by their Propositions.

1. All sentences consist either of a single proposition, or of two or more united propositions, and are divided into

(a.) SIMPLE; as, "The wind blows."

(b.) COMPLEX; as, "When the wind blows, the trees bend."

(c.) COMPOUND; as, "The wind blows, and the trees bend."

2. A *proposition* is the combination of a subject and a predicate; as, "The ocean roars;" "Are you warm?" "Obey your parents;" "How feeble is man!"

3. The *subject* represents that of which something is affirmed; as, "The *lilies* fade."

4. The *predicate* represents that which is affirmed; as, "The waves *dash*."

5. The predicate sometimes represents what is denied of the subject; as, "The door *was not* shut;" "The time will *never* come;" and hence propositions are divided into *affirmative* and *negative*. But for grammatical purposes, *to deny* may be considered the same as to affirm a negative. In general, *to affirm*, as here used, applies to every species of proposition, the interrogative, the imperative, and the exclamatory, as well as the declarative (148, 1).

6. A proposition may be used,—

(a.) As a *sentence*; as, "The mists of the morn have passed away;" or,

(b.) As a mere *element* (147, 5); as, "Seek not the honor *which cometh from men*."

Sentences classified. A proposition. The subject. The predicate. Uses of a proposition—as a sentence—as an element.

7. A proposition is a *sentence*, when, independently and alone, it expresses a thought (147, 2) of the speaker; as, "Coming events cast their shadows before."

8. A proposition is an *element* of a sentence, when, instead of a thought of the speaker, it expresses a mere *idea* or part of the thought; as, "I know *that my Redeemer liveth*."

9. Hence, a sentence is always a proposition, either alone or combined with another, but a proposition is not always a sentence. In complex sentences, at least, one proposition is used to express merely an *idea*. In compound sentences, at least two propositions are used to express *thoughts*.

10. A proposition used as a sentence, is a *simple sentence* however much it may be extended; as, "I call upon the humanity of my country to vindicate the national character;" but, when used as an element, it is considered simple only when consisting of its essential parts (163, 1); namely, the subject and predicate, or subject, predicate, and connective, without modifying words; as, "Be silent *that you may hear*."

NOTE.—The learner cannot too carefully mark the distinction between a proposition and a sentence. The same proposition may be a sentence in one use, and a mere element in another; as, "The day dawned;" "*When the day dawned*, we embarked."

11. United propositions are divided into *principal* and *subordinate*.

12. A *principal* proposition contains the principal or leading assertion; and is that on which the subordinate depends; as, "When spring comes, *the flowers will bloom*."

13. A *subordinate* proposition is one which, by means of a subordinate connective, depends upon some part of the principal; as, "*When spring comes*, the flowers will bloom."

14. United propositions are called *clauses*. A sentence containing but one proposition (7) cannot be said to have clauses. Hence, though a clause is always a proposition, a proposition is a clause only when combined with another.

15. Two united propositions are said to be

(a.) *Similar*, when both alike express a thought of the speaker, or when both express a mere element of the thought; as, "Talent is power, [but] tact is skill;" "I could not tell *when he came*, nor *when he went*."

(b.) *Dissimilar*, when one expresses a thought of the speaker, and the other a mere element of it; as, "He *who assumes the guidance of others*, should govern himself."

Principal and subordinate propositions. Similar and dissimilar propositions.

16. A *simple* sentence contains but one proposition ; as, "The winds blow."

17. A *complex* sentence contains two or more *dissimilar* propositions ; as, "When the wind blows, the trees bend."

18. A *compound* sentence contains two or more *similar* propositions ; as, "The wind blows, and the trees bend."

NOTE.—A sentence containing similar subordinate propositions, must have at least one principal proposition, to express a thought. Hence, such sentences as "I neither knew *what I was*, *where I was*, nor from whence I came," are not compound, but complex or partial compounds (182), even though they contain similar propositions.

151. Exercise.

Tell which of the following sentences are SIMPLE, which are COMPLEX, and which are COMPOUND. Classify them, as in (149).

In the production of order, all men recognise something sacred. Decide not by authoritative rules when they are inconsistent with reason. Though he were as rich as Cræsus, still would man be dissatisfied with his condition. Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden ; but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope. The emperor Augustus was a patron of the fine arts. Good and evil are inseparable companions ; but the latter often hides behind the back of the former. Tell me, when it was that you felt yourself most strongly inclined to go astray.

152. Union of entire Sentences.

1. Entire sentences of the foregoing classes may unite without conjunctions, by a simple *succession*, to form paragraphs or other general divisions of discourse.

2. This succession is sometimes governed by the order of time, sometimes by the order of dependence, or by some other relation of the thoughts.

3. Sentences should be separated from each other by the proper punctuation marks (241, 7).

4. Sometimes one of the coördinate conjunctions (143, 1) is placed at the beginning of an entire sentence, to express more strongly its connection with the preceding sentence ; as, "Her (Athens') power is, indeed, manifested at the bar, in the senate, in the field of battle, in the school of philosophy. *But* these are not her glory."—*Macaulay*

A simple sentence. A complex sentence. A compound sentence.

SYNTAX OF ELEMENTS.

153. Definition.

1. The elements of a sentence are its component parts, each standing for an *idea* and its *relation* to some other idea; as, "The shepherd—gave—the alarm—when he discovered the approach of the wolf."

2. In this example we have the *person* (who), the *action*, the *object* (what), and the *time* (when). The parts employed to express these ideas, whether words or groups of words, are elements (147, 4).

3. Every element, whether long or short, should first be taken as a *whole*, and regarded as the expression of a complete idea; afterwards, its *nature*, *rank*, *form*, and *structure* should be considered.

154. General Division of the Elements.

1. An element may be

- (a.) SUBSTANTIVE, ADJECTIVE, OR ADVERBIAL.
- (b.) PRINCIPAL OR SUBORDINATE.
- (c.) A WORD, A PHRASE, OR A CLAUSE.
- (d.) SIMPLE, COMPLEX, OR COMPOUND.

2. These divisions depend upon the nature, the rank, the form, and the structure of the elementary parts.

155. General Description of the Elements.

1. An element in any of its forms, is

(a.) *Substantive*, when it has the construction and use of the noun; as, "That one should steal is base."

(b.) *Adjective*, when it has the construction and use of the adjective; as, "Wisdom's ways are ways of pleasantness."

(c.) *Adverbial*, when it has the construction and use of the adverb; as, "The voice of the Lord was heard in the garden."

2. An element in any of its forms, is

Principal, when it expresses the chief idea, as, for example, the subject or the predicate (163; 1).

Subordinate, when it depends upon, and modifies the principal, as, for example, the adjective, objective, or adverbial elements (164, 1).

Elements of sentences. Division of elements. Elements substantive, adjective, adverbial, principal, subordinate.

3. An element has the form of

(a.) A *word*, when a single word expresses both an idea and its relation (153, 1); as, "A gentle—breeze—fanned—him."

(b.) A *phrase*, when one word (usually a noun or pronoun) expresses the idea, and another (usually a preposition) the relation; as, "He travelled—in *Europe*."

(c.) A *clause*, when a *proposition* (150, 6, b.) expresses the idea, and some conjunctive word the relation; as, "I know—that my Redeemer liveth."

4. These three forms are called the *first*, *second*, and *third* classes of the elements.

5. An element is, in its structure,—

(a.) *Simple*, when the form (whether a word, phrase, or clause) expresses an idea without modification or addition; as, "Paul—preached—in Rome."

(b.) *Complex*, when the idea expressed by a simple element, is modified by a subordinate element; as, "They were discovered—in the solitude of a dense forest."

(c.) *Compound*, when, to one idea is added an idea similar (159, 3) and grammatically equal; as, "A good and wise prince ascended the throne."

(6.) An expression may be either an element of the sentence, or an element of an element.

The following are examples of the elements in each form:—

SIMPLE. "We left—early;" "We left—at dawn;" "We left—when morning dawned."

COMPLEX. "We left—very early;" "We left—at early dawn;" "We left—when the morning began to dawn in the east."

COMPOUND. "We were employed—early and late." "We were employed—at noon and at night." "We were present—when the train arrived and when it left."

156. Nature of the Elements.

1. All component parts of a sentence, whether words or groups of words, are divided into,—

(a.) Those which express ideas, called the *materials* of the sentence.

(b.) Those which unite these, called *connectives*.

2. The *materials* of the sentence considered apart from connectives, are either *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*.

3. The *connectives* are coördinate or subordinate, according as they join parts similar or dissimilar (159, 3).

4. Sometimes, one and the same word, is a connective, and at the same time forms a material part of the element which it connects. Such is the case with the relative pronouns (74, 1, also 77, 1, 2, &c.) and conjunctive adverbs

An element, a word—phrase—clause; simple, complex, compound. *Materials* of the sentence. *Connectives*.

(143, 18). So, also, the verb when, attributive (80, 5), is equivalent to the participle (adjective) and the copula (connective). Hence, all the parts of speech arrange themselves in the two classes above (1, a. b.) thus,—The noun, and the pronoun, as such, and the infinitive of the verb, are *substantive*; the adjective, including all the forms of limiting and qualifying adjectives, and the participle or attributive part of the verb, are *adjective*; the adverbs of all forms make up the third class—or *adverbial*. The interjection forms no part of the sentence. The conjunctions, the prepositions, the connective value of the relative pronouns, the connective element of conjunctive adverbs, and the copulative part of the verb, are *connectives*.

5. These three kinds of material enter into the sentence, taking all, or nearly all, the constructions of the part of speech which they represent, while the connectives are used to join them either coördinately or subordinately, as their several relations require.

157. Number of the Elements.

1. A sentence may have five distinct elements,—

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| (a.) The SUBJECT, | } Principal elements. |
| (b.) The PREDICATE, | |
| (c.) The ADJECTIVE ELEMENT, | } Subordinate elements. |
| (d.) The OBJECTIVE ELEMENT, | |
| (e.) The ADVERBIAL ELEMENT, | |

EXAMPLE. “*Coming—EVENTS—CAST—their shadows—before.*”

2. The principal elements are essential to the existence of the sentence; the subordinate elements are used to modify and define the principal.

3. Besides these, we may have in connection with a sentence, the name of the person to whom the language is addressed; as, “*Children, have ye any meat?*” This, though not properly an element of the sentence, is intimately associated with it, and is sometimes called the *compellative*.

4. The compellative is either a noun or pronoun in the nominative independent, and may be limited, like a noun or pronoun, in any other relation; as, “*Ye, who listen with credulity to the whispers of fancy, and pursue with eagerness the phantoms of hope, * * * attend to the history of Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia.*”

158. Exercise.

1. *Separate the following sentences into their ELEMENTS (155, 1, 2, 3, 4), so as to represent the prominent IDEAS:—*

• The trees are leafless. A life of prayer is a life of heaven. The

Five elements,—Subject, predicate, adjective element, objective element, adverbial element. Compellative.

Swiss love liberty. He was not clad in costly raiment. Henry begged that they would come to his assistance. His parents mourned his untimely death. He labored diligently to complete the work. The quality of mercy is not strained. Simon, son of Jonas, lovest thou me? He jests at scars, that never felt a wound. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank! Let me stand here till thou remember it. Peace, tranquillity, and innocence, shed their mingled delights around him. Approach and behold, while I lift from his sepulchre, its covering.

2. Tell which are **PRINCIPAL**, and which **SUBORDINATE**.

3. Point out the **SUBJECTS**, **PREDICATES**, **ADJECTIVE**, **OBJECTIVE**, and **ADVERBIAL** elements.

4. Tell which are **SUBSTANTIVE**, which **ADJECTIVE**, and which **ADVERBIAL**.

5. Tell which are **SIMPLE**, which **COMPLEX**, and which **COMPOUND**.

6. Tell which are **WORDS**, which **PHRASES**, and which **CLAUSES**.

159. Rank of Elements.

1. The *rank* of an element is its degree of subordination, reckoning in the order of dependence from the subject or the predicate. Thus,—

In the sentence,—“*Catiline plunged into every species of iniquity*,” “*Catiline*” and “*plunged*” are of the first rank; “*into species*,” which depends upon “*plunged*,” is of the second rank; while “*every*” and “*of iniquity*,” depending upon “*species*,” are of the third rank. Hence, it will be seen that elements may have different degrees of subordination.

2. All elements below the second rank, are not to be regarded as sentence-elements, but merely parts, or elements of such elements. Hence, the proper elements of the sentence are the subject, the predicate, and the elements immediately depending on these (157, 2).

3. In case two elements of the same rank should be joined to a common element, they may express,—

(a.) *Similar* ideas, and be joined to each other; as, “*Alfred the Great was a brave [and] pious, and patriotic prince*;”— or

(b.) *Dissimilar* ideas, and be wholly disconnected from each other; as, “*The enemy rushed (how) forth (when) at night (where) upon the defenceless city*.”

NOTE.—Two dissimilar elements of the *same* rank never unite with each other, though both may be joined to a common term; but dissimilar elements of *different* ranks unite with each other.

4. Two united elements of the same rank are said to be *coördinate*; two united elements of different rank are said to be *subordinate*, the one to the other.

Rank of elements. Sentence-elements. Similar and dissimilar elements. Coördinate and subordinate elements.

160. Union of Elements.

1. Two elements may be united,

(a.) *With or without* a connective.(b.) *Coördinately or subordinately*; that is, so that both unite equally to express one general idea which may be employed to modify a third, or so that one shall depend upon and modify the other.

Thus, in the sentence, "An industrious—scholar—studies—his lesson—attentively," the five elements (157, 1) are joined without the use of a connective. But in the sentence,—"The leaves—of the aspen—are trembling—in the breeze," the elements are all joined by the connectives *of*, *are*, and *in*. In the sentence,—"We prosecuted our journey—*by day and by night*," the two adverbial elements are joined to each other coördinately by "and" (159, 4), and to the predicate subordinately by the preposition "by."

2. Coördinate elements are always joined to each other by some one of the coördinate conjunctions (143); and should each coördinate part contain in itself a subordinate connective, this last is used to join it to the common element, as, for example, "by" in the sentence above.

3. When the connection between two united elements is subordinate, it is always without a connective in elements of the first form (single words), and with connectives expressed or understood in all other cases. In the first case, the relation is shown either by the position or by the altered form of the words; as, "He industrious-*ly* employ-*s* all his powers."

4. Coördinate connectives form no part of either of the connected elements. But subordinate connectives form an important part of the elements which they introduce. The subordinate connectives are either the prepositions, and so of the infinitive; or the relative pronouns, conjunctions, and the conjunctive adverbs (143, 12, 139). The *copula* forms a part of the predicate, and joins two elements, both of which are essential, and are hence called principal, yet they are not coördinate.

5. A proposition without a connective expressed or understood, is usually a principal proposition. In direct quotations (170), however, the quoted proposition is not incorporated into the sentence as an original *idea* of the speaker (150, 9), but still remains as a *thought* of its author; hence, though subordinate in construction, it has no connective; as, "He said, I shall neither confess nor deny." Compare with this, "He said that he should neither confess nor deny."

6. While two coördinate elements unite to express a combined idea, the one does not enter into the structure of the other; but the subordinate element constitutes, as it were, an organic part of the principal element.

161. Mutual Relation of Elements.

1. The principal element always controls or governs the subordinate.

Elements united with or without a connective,—coördinately, subordinately.
Control of the principal element. —

2. This it does by causing the subordinate element

(a.) To agree with itself, or

(b.) To take some particular *case, mode, or tense*.

3. The former is called *agreement* or *concord*, and the latter *government*. Thus, the adjective implying number, agrees in *number* with the noun; as, "*These* (not *this*) books;"—the verb agrees in *number* and *person* with the subject; as, "*I walk*;"—the predicate noun or pronoun agrees in *case* with the subject; as, "*I am he*." So also the noun in apposition. The *government* of the superior term is effected either *directly*; as, "*Solomon's temple*;"—or by means of a *connective*; as, "*The temple of Solomon*." So also of the *objective case*, "*We saw him*," "*We looked at him*."

4. The subordinate element always modifies or limits the principal.

5. This it does by restricting or extending its application; as, "*The people* (not all, but those) *of Maine*;" "*All men are mortal*." In the first example the phrase "*of Maine*" limits the application of "*people*" by showing *what* people, and excluding all others.

6. This office of the subordinate term is that which enables us to restrict the meaning of a general term so as to *individualize* its application.

Thus, *man* is a general term, and applies equally well to any one of the race, but "*The MAN who was first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen*," points out as definitely a single man as does the name *George Washington*. The term which thus restricts or extends the meaning of another is said to *limit* or *modify* it.

7. Co-ordinate elements neither govern nor modify each other.

8. That is, the one in no way affects the *case, mode, tense, number, person, agreement, or application* of the other.

162. Exercise.

1. Separate the following sentences into their **ELEMENTS** (154), and tell the **BANK** of each.

Soft stillness and the night become the touches of sweet harmony.

The man that hath not music in himself,
Nor is not moved with concord of sweet sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.

Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger, comes dancing from the east.

All the triumphs of truth and genius over prejudice and power, in every country, and in every age, have been the triumphs of Athens.

The way was long—the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.

Modification of the subordinate element. Relation of coördinate elements.

2. Tell which are of the first, second, and third RANK.

3. Tell which are united CO-ORDINATELY, which SUBORDINATELY, which WITH, and which WITHOUT, a connective.

4. Tell which elements CONTROL or govern others, which MODIFY, and which neither CONTROL nor MODIFY.

163. Principal Elements.

1. The *principal* elements are the highest in rank (157, 1), and are essential to the formation of a sentence. They are the *subject*, and the *predicate* (150, 3, 4).

2. The *subject* is a word, or a group of words, used to represent that of which something is affirmed; as, "The *sea* roars;" "To err is human;" "That *Christianity* will become the religion of all nations, is declared in the Scriptures."

3. The *predicate* is a word, or a group of words, used to represent that which is affirmed of the subject; as, "The day *dawns*;" "The affair *is to be investigated*;" "Our hope *was, that the wind would drive us to the opposite shore*."

4. The subject represents some object (35, 2), and the predicate some attribute of that object; as, "The *city* is populous;" "The morning *light* is breaking."

5. Attributes are of three kinds:—

(a.) Those which denote the *class* of objects; as, *beast, bird, tree*.

(b.) Those which denote the *qualities* of objects; as, *good, old, sweet*.

(c.) Those which denote the *actions* of objects; as, *run, crawl, fly*.

6. In some cases, the attribute denotes merely the *state* of the object; as, "The tree *stands*;" "The prisoner *is in health*."

7. The union of the attribute with its object may be represented in two ways:—

(a.) It may be *predicated* of it; as, "The sky *is blue*;" "The sea *is rough*;" "Reptiles *are poisonous*;" or,

(b.) It may be *assumed* of it; as, "*blue* sky;" "*rough* sea;" "*poisonous* reptiles."

8. This distinction is fundamental; if no attribute is *predicated*, we cannot have a sentence, no matter how many may be assumed. The one is called the *predicative* combination, the other the *adjective* or *attributive*. The one is a formal statement (Lat. "*predicare*," to tell, to declare) of a present opinion or judgment of the speaker; the other is an informal assumption (Lat. "*assumere*," to take, as if conceded, or granted) of a previous opinion

Principal elements. The subject. The predicate. Attributes of class, quality, action. Attributes predicated—assumed.

or judgment, not now asserted, but supposed to be granted by the hearer. The one is a proposition (150, 2), the other is not (although it presupposes one), but is a mere appendage to one. A predicated action is represented by a verb; an assumed action by a participle, that is, the former *asserts* something of a noun, the latter *assumes* the same and thereby *limits* the noun.

9. The attribute, when predicated, is joined to the subject either directly, or by some form of the verb "to be," called the *copula*. When the copula is employed, it connects the attribute to the subject by predicating it. When the copula and attribute are united in the verb, the latter contains the power to predicate its own attribute (80).

10. Besides the copula, several verbs, such as *become, seem, appear*, and the passives *is made, is appointed, is elected, is created, is constituted, is rendered, is named, is styled, is called, is esteemed, is thought, is considered, &c., &c.*, perform the office of the copula, and are hence called *copulative verbs*.

164. Subordinate Elements.

1. The *subordinate* elements are those which depend upon and modify (161, 4) the principal elements. They are

- (a.) The *adjective* or *attributive* element;
- (b.) The *objective* element;
- (c.) The *adverbial* element.

2. These elements are used to give greater definiteness to a proposition by limiting the application of its principal terms (161, 6).

3. The *adjective* element is any word, or group of words, added to the subject (or the noun in any relation), and is used to show *what kind, what, of what, how many, or whose*; as, "*White* clouds were seen in the west;" "*These* hands have ministered to my necessities;" "*Three* regiments of volunteers were enlisted;" "*Those who expect favors* must learn to be obliging."

4. The *objective* element is a word, or group of words, added usually to a transitive verb, and is used to complete its meaning by showing *what, whom, to what, to whom, &c.*; as, "The boy opened the *door*;" "Pharaoh made *Joseph* governor over the land;" "He gave *me a book*."

5. The object may be either *single* or *double, direct* or *indirect*.

6. Certain adjectives, and even the adverbs derived from them, require the addition of an indirect object to complete their meaning; as, "He was conscious of *his weakness*;" "He was like *his father*;" "They came agreeably *to promise*."

7. The *adverbial* element is any word, or group of words, added

The copula. Copulative verbs. Subordinate elements. The adjective element. The objective element. The adverbial element.

to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, and is used to show *place, time, cause, or manner*; “We approached *slowly* ;” “They came *in the spring* ;” “They stopped *where night overtook them*.”

8. Adverbial elements of whatever form, like adverbs, denote *place, time, cause, or manner*.

165. Exercise.

1. *Separate the following sentences into their elements :—*

The principle which gave a peculiar coloring to every feature of Isabella's mind was piety. Death is the season which brings our affections to the test. Has reason fled from our borders? To err is human; to forgive, divine. That high moral excellence is true greatness cannot be denied. I have forgotten why I called thee back. There are plenty of men who become distinguished by the predominance of one single faculty, or the exercise of a solitary virtue. She moves a goddess. Pale mourned the lily where the rose had died. Now fades the glimmering landscape from the sight. Deep in the wave is a coral grove. The eldest son of the British sovereign is styled the Prince of Wales.

2. *Tell which are PRINCIPAL, and which SUBORDINATE.*

3. *Tell which subjects or predicates are WORDS or GROUPS of words.*

4. *Tell which predicates denote CLASS, which QUALITY, and which ACTION.*

5. *ASSUME each predicate of its subject.*

6. *Tell which predicates have a COPULA or COPULATIVE verb.*

7. *Point out the ADJECTIVE, OBJECTIVE, and ADVERBIAL elements, and tell which are single words, and which are groups of words.*

166. Elements of the First Class.—Words.

1. When a word, expressing an *idea* without a connective (155, 3, a.), is used as the subject, predicate, or part immediately depending upon either, it is a sentence-element of the *first class*.

EXAMPLE.—“Constant—boasting—always—betrays—incapacity.”

2. When such a word depends upon one of the subordinate elements, it is of the third rank (159, 2), and though an element of the first class, it is an element of an element, that is, forms part of a complex element; as, “We hoped to find *employment*.”

3. All words, thus used, perform the office of the substantive, adjective, or adverb (156, 2).

A word—when a sentence-element—when not an element. A word—substantive, adjective, or adverbial.

167. Elements of the Second Class.—Phrases.

1. When an expression, in its simplest form, has one word to represent an *idea*, and another to show its *relation*, it is a *phrase* or element of the *second class*.

EXAMPLE.—“A statue of marble—*was chiselled*—by the artist.”

NOTE.—Any group of words not containing an assertion is a phrase; as, “very earnestly;” “quite favorably;” but here each word expresses an *idea*. A phrase, as used in analysis of sentences, is restricted to a group of words having one word to show a *relation*, and another either alone or modified to express an *idea*; as, “at dawn;” “at early dawn.”

2. When a phrase depends upon one of the subordinate elements, it is still an element of the second class, but not a sentence-element (159, 2); as, “A popular poet had the post of honor.”

3. All phrases, as a whole, are either *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial* (156, 2).

4. Every simple phrase should be separated into its two parts; and every complex or compound phrase into its simple elements. For a full discussion of Phrases, see Analysis, Chap. II.

168. Elements of the Third Class.—Clauses.

1. When an expression, in its simplest form, has a proposition to represent an *idea* and some word to show its *relation*, it is a *clause* or element of the *third class*.

EXAMPLE.—“Satan, *whom now transcendent glory raised above his fellows*, spake.”

2. A clause, like a phrase, is always a group of words; but, unlike a phrase, it always contains a proposition.

3. A clause is a sentence-element (159, 2) only when it is used as the subject, predicate, or part directly dependent upon one of these; otherwise, it is but an element of an element.

Examples of clauses used as sentence-elements.—“That a man of mighty genius can impart himself to other minds is well known to all.” “He who teaches often learns himself.” “Thou knowest that virtue cannot be despoiled of its deathless crown.” “If thine enemy hunger, feed him.”

Examples of clauses used as parts of elements.—“They—sailed—in the steamer which left on Wednesday;” “I—experienced—a pleasure which I cannot describe.”

4. All subordinate clauses are either *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverbial*, (159, 2), and may take the grammatical construction of the parts of speech which they represent.

A phrase—when a sentence-element—when not. Phrases—substantive, adjective, or adverbial. A clause—when a sentence-element—when not. Subordinate clauses—substantive, adjective, adverbial.

5. A simple subordinate clause consists of a *connective*, and a *proposition* containing a subject and a predicate only (150, 10). A complex clause is formed by adding modifying elements to the subject or predicate of a simple clause. See Analysis, Chap. III.

169. Exercise.

Separate the following sentences into their elements, and tell which are of the FIRST CLASS, which of the SECOND, and which of the THIRD:—

Regard the rights of property. Columbus died in ignorance of the real grandeur of his discovery. On Prague's proud arch the fires of ruin glow. The credulity which has faith in goodness is a sign of goodness. The noble Brutus hath told you Cæsar was ambitious. We stand the latest, and if we fail, probably the last, experiment of self-government by the people. We have begun it under circumstances of the most auspicious nature. We are in the vigor of youth. Our growth has never been checked by the oppressions of tyranny. The Atlantic rolls between us and any formidable foe.

Lochiel, Lochiel, beware of the day

When the Lowlands shall meet thee in battle array.

170. Direct and Indirect Quotation.

1. When a writer quotes the thought of another, and incorporates it into a sentence of his own, he may introduce it

(a.) *As a thought* of the author narrated by himself in his own words *exactly*; or

(b.) *As an idea* of the speaker adopted from the author, and narrated for the latter in his own words *nearly*.

The first is called *direct quotation*; as, "He said, '*I will do it.*'" The second is called *indirect quotation*; as, "He said, *that he would do it.*"

2. The quoted part is used substantively, and appears as a substantive clause most commonly in the objective.

3. All substantive clauses may be divided into those containing

(a.) A *statement* or a *command*; as, "Many suppose *that the planets are inhabited*," "The captain gave the order, '*shoulder arms.*'"

(b.) An *inquiry*; as, "Let me ask *why you have come?*"

4. In quoting a statement of another *directly*, we should indicate the quotation by the marks, or the use of the capital, without a connective (160, 5). But in quoting *indirectly*, the quotation marks are omitted, and the connective *that* should be employed; as, "God said, Let there be light, and there was light;" "St. John says that God is love."

Simple and complex clauses. Quotation,—when direct and when indirect. A substantive clause, a statement, an inquiry. Quoted questions—direct and indirect.

5. In quoting an inquiry of another, two cases may occur,—

(a.) The interrogative may be a *direct* question (148, 7, 8) without an interrogative word; or,

(b.) It may be an *indirect* question, with an interrogative pronoun or adverb for a connective (78, 5).

6. When a direct or indirect question is quoted *directly*, the quoted part should begin with a capital, or receive the quotation marks, having the interrogation point at the close; as, "They inquired, Will he certainly come?" "He asked, *How long must we wait?*"

7. When a direct question is quoted *indirectly*, the connective *whether* (sometimes *if*) is used, the quotation marks are omitted, and a period is placed at the close; as, "He asked *whether the time had arrived.*" When an indirect question is quoted *indirectly*, the interrogative word becomes the connective, and the sentence closes with the period, the quoted part having no quotation marks; as, "They asked *where we were to stop.*"

8. It should be observed that in indirect quotation, the person of the subject, the mode and tense of the verb, and the arrangement of the parts, are often changed; as, "He said, '*I will be present at an early hour.*'" "He said that *he would be present at an early hour.*"

9. The quoted passage, whether direct or indirect, may form either of the five elements of the sentence, except the adverbial.

EXAMPLES,—"'Will he do it?' is the question;" "The question is, '*Will he do it?*'" "The question, '*Will he do it?*' has not yet been answered." "He said that *he would do it.*"

10. It should be observed that the interrogation point follows all interrogative clauses when quoted directly, and is omitted after all such clauses when quoted indirectly. This last remark must not be confounded with those cases where the principal clause is interrogative; as, "Shall I tell where we met with encouragement?" "Do you ask me who I am?"

11. The clause, which is usually the leading one, may take

(a.) A prominent position; as, "*They say that they have bought it.*"

(b.) An intermediate position; as, "For all that," *said the pendulum*, "it is very dark here."

(c.) A position wholly subordinate; as, "He left, *as he told me*, before the arrival of the steamer."

171. Exercise.

1. *Separate the following sentences into their elements, and point out the quotations:—*

Then Judah came near unto him, and said, O, my lord, let thy servant, I pray thee, speak a word in my lord's ears. "Punctuality," replied Washington, "is an angel virtue." "Tell me, my son," said he, "did you ever hear of any who are called ungrateful?" Try the spirits,

Changes of person, &c., in indirect quotation. Different relations of the quoted passage. Interrogation point, when used. Position of leading clause.

whether they be of God. He asked, whether they were friends or foes (170, 7). “‘Why have you come so late?’ was the prompt inquiry.” The question, “Where shall the funds be obtained?” seemed not to have entered their minds. Let me ask you if your resolutions are as firm as when you first set out in the spiritual life. The Scriptures inform us how we may obtain eternal life. It is natural to man, as Patrick Henry eloquently said, to indulge in the illusions of hope. I am not to discuss the question, whether the souls of men are naturally equal. But I would ask, does the recollection of Bunker’s Hill, Saratoga, and Yorktown, afford no pleasure?

2. Show which quotations are DIRECT, and which are INDIRECT.

3. Show which contain STATEMENTS or COMMANDS, and which INQUIRIES.

172. Simple, Complex, and Compound Elements.

1. When an element of either class expresses a single idea, without addition or modification, it is a *simple* element; as, “An *honest* man; a man *of honesty*; a man *who is honest*.”

2. The simple subject is called the *grammatical* subject; the simple predicate, the *grammatical* predicate. The same distinction might be made in the other elements. Thus, we have the *simple* or *grammatical* adjective, objective, or adverbial element.

3. When a simple or grammatical element receives the addition of another simple element, joined to it subordinately (160, 1, 6), to modify its meaning, the two unite and form one element, called a *complex* or *logical* element; as, “A *very honest* man; a man *of extreme honesty*; a man *who is perfectly honest*.”

4. A complex or logical element is the simple or grammatical element with all its modifications, and may first be considered as a *whole*, and then separated into its simple parts.

5. In this case, the grammatical or leading element is called the *principal element* or *basis*, and gives its own name and properties to the whole group.

Thus, in the sentence, “They improved the opportunities which they enjoyed,” the objective element is “the opportunities which they enjoyed;” *opportunities* is the basis, limited by the adjective clause “which they enjoyed.”

6. An element may be subordinate to one and principal to another; as, “They discovered huge *masses* of ice.”

Here “*masses*” is *subordinate* to “discovered,” and *principal* to the phrase “of ice.”

Elements—simple, complex, and compound. The basis.

7. When a simple or a complex element receives the addition of another joined to it coördinately (160, 1, b.), the two unite (159 and 160), and form one *compound* element; as, "*Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution.*"

173. Exercise.

1. *Separate the following sentences into their elements, and point out those which are SIMPLE, COMPLEX, or COMPOUND:—*

The character of Milton was peculiarly distinguished by loftiness of thought. The place was worthy of such a trial. Neither military nor civil pomp was wanting. Poetry is the handmaid of true philosophy and morality. The style and the eloquence and structure of their orations were equally different. That their poetry is almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian. If the mighty pyramid had any purpose beyond that of a mausoleum, such purpose has perished from history and from tradition. To deprive me of liberty, to torture me, or to imprison me, is not your right. One of the first lessons of a judicious education is, Learn to think and to discriminate.

174. Elements of the Simple Sentence.

1. The elements of the simple sentence may be,—

(a.) SUBSTANTIVE, ADJECTIVE, OR ADVERBIAL.

(b.) PRINCIPAL OR SUBORDINATE (156).

(c.) WORDS OR PHRASES.

(d.) SIMPLE, COMPLEX, OR COMPOUND.

2. The simple sentence is distinguished from all others, by the fact that it has but one proposition — no one of its elements being a clause.

175. Varieties of the Elements.

1. The simple subject may be,—

(a.) A *noun*; as, "*Kings reign.*"

(b.) A *pronoun*; as, "*He lives*;" "*They come*;" "*Who knows?*"

(c.) An *adjective* used as a noun; as, "*The wicked flee.*"

(d.) A *word, letter, or symbol* (35, 5); as, "*Is* is a verb;" "*P* is a mute."

(e.) A *substantive phrase*; as, "*To steal* is base."

2. The simple predicate may be,—

(a.) A *verb*,—copula and attribute combined; as, "*The sun shines.*"

(b.) The *copula* and *participial* attribute; as, "*We are reading.*"

(c.) The *copula* and *adjective* attribute; as, "*The sea was boisterous.*"

The simple sentence. Its elements.

(d.) The *copula* and *substantive* attribute; as, "I am *he*;" "She is the *princess*."

(e.) The *copula* and a *phrase*; as, "He is to *write*."

(f.) The *copulative verb* (82, 9), and either of these attributes; as, "He is called *John*."

3. The complex subject, except when the simple subject is verbal, contains an adjective element, which may be

(1.) SIMPLE, embracing

(a.) A *limiting* adjective; as, "*This* man came."

(b.) A *qualifying* adjective; as, "*Old* timber decays."

(c.) A *noun* used as an adjective; as, "*Gold* watches were sold."

(d.) A *noun* in apposition; as, "King *Latinus* ruled."

(e.) A *noun* or *pronoun* in the *possessive*; as, "*Joseph's* brethren wept;" "*His* father came."

(f.) Two or more separate elements of either kind; as, "*The first* star appeared." "*Three young* men were employed." "*The first three old* houses were destroyed." "*The apostle Paul* preached at Rome." "*Isaac's* son Jacob deceived him."

(2.) COMPLEX, formed

(a.) By joining an *adverb* to an adjective; as, "A *truly* great man has died."

(b.) By joining an *adjective* or *participle* to a *noun*; as "Bunyan, the *distinguished* author, was imprisoned;" "The *old* man's daughter wept."

(c.) By joining an adjective phrase to a *noun*; as, "Galileo, the inventor of the *telescope*, was persecuted."

3. The complex predicate may contain,—

(a.) A *simple direct* object; as, "Raleigh commanded an *expedition*;" "They disappointed *us*."

(b.) A *simple indirect* object; as, "Were not his talents given *him*?"

(c.) A *double* object, consisting of an object and attribute (word or phrase); as, "They made *him an officer*." "They made *him sick*." "They made *him labor*." "They taught *him to read*."

(d.) A *direct* and an *indirect* object; as, "We gave *him a book*." "They asked *us to go*."

(e.) A *complex* object; as, "We obtained *delicious fruit*."

NOTE.—The object may be complex in the same way as the subject. (See 3. above.)

(f.) The double object may be complex in either or both of its parts; as, "Napoleon made his *brother Joseph king* of Spain." Here "brother" is modified by "his" and by "Joseph," and "king" by the phrase "of Spain."

4. The complex predicate may contain,—

(a.) A *simple* adverb of place, time, &c.; as, "They came *late*."

(b.) A *simple* adverbial phrase of place, time, &c.; as, "We left *at night*."

(c.) A *complex* adverbial element, consisting of single words; as, "They rode *very fast*."

Simple sentences. Their elements.

(d.) A *complex* adverbial element, consisting of a word and a phrase; as, "He appeared *agreeably to promise*."

(e.) A *complex* adverbial element, consisting of two phrases; as, "He walked *in the garden of the king*."

(f.) Either form of the objective element (4, a. b. c. d. &c.), and either form of the adverbial (5, a. b. c. &c.).

176. Exercise.

1. *Separate the following simple sentences into their elements:—*

A duty has been performed. The Bunker Hill monument is finished. The peasantry sinks before the invader. A jailor of the dauphin of France was named Simon. Paul, the apostle to the Gentiles, was sent a prisoner to Rome. I have spoken of the loftiness of its purpose. The powerful speaker stands motionless before us. How beautiful is all this visible world! Poetry has a natural alliance with our best affections. The teacher gave a reward to the best scholar. I bring thee here my fortress-keys.

177. Elements of Complex Sentences.

1. The elements of a complex sentence are *clauses*, of which one, at least, must be principal, and one subordinate; as, "I am not now to discuss the question—whether the souls of men are naturally equal."

2. The principal clause should be regarded, however, as a simple sentence, and the subordinate, as one of its elements.

3. Thus considered, the complex sentence may have *principal* and *subordinate* elements, either of which may be *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*, and either may be *simple*, *complex*, or *compound*.

178. Varieties of Complex Sentences.

1. The complex sentence has the same varieties of *word* and *phrase* elements as the simple sentence. (See 175.)

2. The subordinate clause, as *substantive*, *adjective*, or *adverb* (156, 2), may form either of the five elements of the sentence (157, 1).

3. The *subject* may be a *substantive* clause in any of its varieties (170, 3).

(a.) A *statement* quoted *directly*; as, "'I must leave to-morrow,' was his reply."

Elements of complex sentences. Clauses—simple, complex, compound. Varieties of clauses.

(b.) A *command* quoted directly; as, “‘*Follow me,*’ was our Lord’s command.”

(c.) An *abstract statement* quoted indirectly, and introduced by “that;” as, “*That the earth revolves on its axis has been clearly proved*” — *It has been clearly proved, &c.*

(d.) A *direct question* quoted directly; as, “‘*Will he do it?*’ is the question.”

(e.) A *direct question* quoted indirectly; as, “‘*Whether he will do it is doubtful.*”

(f.) An *indirect question* quoted directly; as, “‘*Who was the author of Junius’s Letters?*’ is still a question.”

(g.) An *indirect question* quoted indirectly; as, “Who was the author of Junius’s Letters has never been satisfactorily determined.”

4. The *predicate* may be the copula and a substantive clause in any of the varieties above; as, “A second mistake upon the subject of happiness is, *that it is to be found in prosperity.*”

5. The *adjective element* may be

(1.) The *adjective clause* introduced by the relative pronoun used as

(a.) *Subject* of its own clause; as, “His fame, *which is bounded by no country,* will be confined to no age.”

(b.) *Adjective element*; as, “I could a tale unfold *whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul.*”

(c.) *Single object*; as, “The lesson *which she learned* was too long.”

(d.) *Double object*; as, “The man *whom they call the JANITOR.*”

(e.) *Adverbial element* (with a preposition); as, “The church *in which they met* was dimly lighted.”

(2.) A *substantive clause* in any of its varieties used as an adjective; as, “The question, ‘What shall we do?’” “The opinion *that the planets are inhabited.*”

(8.) An *adverbial clause* used as an adjective to limit a noun; as, “I remember the time *when my existence commenced.*”

6. The *objective element* may be a substantive clause in any of the varieties above (3); as, “He knew *how to conquer by waiting.*” “‘*What will he give to my friend the king of Norway?*’ asked the brother.”

7. The *adverbial element* may be an adverbial clause denoting

(a.) *Place*; as, “*Whither I go,* ye cannot come.”

(b.) *Time*; as, “*While I was musing,* the fire burned.”

(c.) *Cause*; as, “Ye shall not see me, *because I go unto my Father.*”

(d.) *Manner*; as, “*Speak as you think;*” “Mary is *as old as her cousin.*”

NOTE.—For all the varieties of the adverbial clause, see Analysis, Chap. III.

179. Elements of Compound Sentences.

1. The elements of compound sentences are principal clauses (150, 11, 18); as, “I was hungry, and ye gave no meat.”

Elements of complex sentences. Compound sentences.

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2. The added clause may be either *copulative*, *adversative*, *alternative*, or *causal*.

3. The component parts may be either simple or complex sentences.

Thus,—“The man was communicative enough, *but* nothing was distinct in his mind;” “We must not expect that our roses will grow without thorns; *but* then they are useful and instructive thorns, which, by pricking the fingers of the too hasty plucker, teach future caution.”

4. Sometimes a compound sentence consists of *members*,—each being formed by a close union of its clauses, but in a measure separated from each other; as, “The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master’s crib: *but* Israel doth not know; my people doth not consider.”

The first two propositions form the first member, and the last two the second.

180. Varieties of Compound Sentences.

1. COPULATIVE.

(a.) *Without emphasis*, and with a simple connective; as, “The rain is over, and the sun shines.”

(b.) With the second clause rendered emphatic, by an associated connective (**143**, 5, 6, c); as, “She sings; [and] *besides* she plays skilfully.”

(c.) With the second clause not only rendered emphatic, but pointed to, and more closely connected by means of a *correlative*; as, “*Not only* am I instructed by this exercise, *but* I am also invigorated.”

2. ADVERSATIVE.

(a.) *Denoting opposition or contrast*; as, “He did not return to his parents, *but* he persisted in wandering among strangers.”

(b.) *Denoting some limitation or restriction*; as, “The army was victorious, *but* the general was slain.”

(c.) *Denoting opposition or restriction with emphasis expressed by a correlative or an associated connective*; as, “The delinquent has been repeatedly admonished, *but still* he is as negligent as ever.”

3. ALTERNATIVE.

(a.) *Simply offering or denying a choice*; as, “We must fight, *or* our liberties are lost.”

(b.) *Offering or denying a choice with emphasis*; as, “Learn your lesson, *or* otherwise you must lose your rank;” “Neither hath this man sinned, *nor* his parents.”

4. CAUSAL.

NOTE.—Causal, coördinate propositions are generally placed in both a copulative and causal relation to the former; as, “The south wind blows [and] *therefore* there must be rain.” The causal connective may therefore be considered as *associated* with some conjunction expressed or understood. Yet *for*, *therefore*, *hence*, *whence*, and other illative conjunctions, are sometimes the only connectives.

Copulative, adversative, alternative, causal. Members. Elements of compound sentences.

181. Exercise.

Separate the following sentences into their elements, pointing out the COMPLEX and the COMPOUND sentences, and the PRINCIPAL and SUBORDINATE clauses:—

Our ancestors came to the land, when fifty centuries had held reign, with no pen to write their history. Silence, which no occupation of civilized life had broken, was in all its borders, and had been from creation. The lofty oak had grown through its lingering age, and decayed, and perished, without name or record. The storm had risen and roared in the wilderness, and none had caught its sublime inspiration. The fountains had flowed on; the mighty river had poured its useless waters; the cataract had lifted up its thundering to the march of time, and no eye had seen it, but that of the wild tenants of the desert.—*Dewey.*

Can I forget that I have been branded as an outlaw? The sun shines, but they behold it not. Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience. We have met the enemy, and they are ours.

182. Elements of Contracted Sentences.

1. A *contracted* sentence is one which is derived from a compound or a complex sentence.

Thus, "Heaven and earth shall pass away," is derived from "Heaven shall pass away, and earth shall pass away." So the sentence, "The benefit arising to us from an enlarged understanding cannot well be overrated," is derived from "The benefit *which arises* to us from an enlarged understanding, cannot well be overrated."

2. Contracted sentences are

(a.) *Partial compounds*, when they are derived from compound sentences.

(b.) *Sentences with abridged propositions*, when they are derived from complex sentences.

3. A compound sentence may be contracted when its clauses have a common part; as, "The sun *stood still*, and the moon *stood still*" = "The sun and the moon *stood still*."

4. To derive a partial from a full compound, unite into one compound the parts not found in each clause, and to this join the common part, changing the number of the verb if necessary.

EXAMPLE.—"Industry *is* essential to happiness, honesty *is* essential to happiness, and temperance *is* essential to happiness" = "Industry, honesty, and temperance *are* essential to happiness."

5. A complex sentence may be contracted by abridging its subordi-

• A contracted sentence. Partial compound. Abridged propositions.

nate clause; as, "*When peace of mind is secured, we may smile at misfortune;*" "*Peace of mind being secured, we may smile at misfortune.*"

6. A subordinate clause is abridged by dropping its connective, and changing the predicate into a *participle* or an *infinitive*. The subject is dropped when it has already been expressed in the principal clause, otherwise it must be retained, either in the nominative, possessive, or objective. The predicate is never dropped.

NOTE.—A proposition is abridged when it loses its copula, or power to predicate, even if the number of words or syllables should be increased by the change.

7. In case a clause should form one term of a comparison, the appropriate connective of the clause is dropped; but that which shows the comparison is retained; as, "The bed is shorter *than that* a man can stretch himself in it."—*Bible*. Abridged, it would be, "The bed is shorter *than* for a man to stretch," &c. In this example, the subjects of the clauses are unlike. When the subjects are alike, that of the subordinate clause is dropped by rule, and the simple infinitive is all that remains; as, "My friend was so elated *as that* he forgot his appointment" = *as to forget* his appointment;" "The soldiers desired nothing more *than to know* where the enemy was." So, again, in case of incorporated interrogative sentences, the interrogative being used both as a connective and a material part of the clause (156, 4), must be retained when the clause is abridged; as, "I knew not *what I should do*" = I knew not *what to do* (201, 19). In the same way we have, I know not *whom to send, where to go, when to stop*.

8. Logically considered, the derived expression as a whole is an equivalent (186) of the original, and sustains the same relation in the sentence. In the full form, all the words within the clause have the same construction as in a simple sentence, but are wholly independent of any word which may govern the clause. But grammatically considered, the words of the abridged clause cease to have the construction of the simple sentence; the subject is no longer subject, the predicate is no longer predicate, and either one or the other must be affected by the word which governed the primitive clause. Thus, in the sentence, "I believe *that he is an honest man*," no word in the subordinate clause is changed to show that, as a whole, the clause is the object of "believe." But in the abridged form, "I believe *him to be an honest man*," "he" becomes "him," the principal object of "believe," and "to be an honest man," the attributive object (211, 0) "man," being in the objective, to agree with "him" by (161, 8).

9. When the relation of the subordinate clause is such as not to come under the governing influence of any word, as when it denotes a causal

Rule for abridging a proposition. Clauses denoting comparison. Effect of the governing word.

or concomitant circumstance, the subject of the abridged proposition is, as it were, *absolved* from any regimen from without, and remains unchanged in the nominative, called the *nominative absolute*, and the predicate noun, if there be any, remains also in the nominative by (161, 3); as, "*Since a youth is their leader, what can they do?*" = *A YOUTH being their LEADER, what can they do?*

10. When the subject is dropped, the predicate alone is affected by the word which governed the full proposition. This is the case with nearly all adjective clauses, where the participle as an *adjective* becomes subordinate to the word which the clause limits; as, "*The ship which glided over the waves*" = *The ship gliding over the waves.* It is also the case in many adverbial clauses, where the participle as a *noun* is governed by a preposition used to show the adverbial relation; as, "*When they approached the city, they were met by a select committee*" = *On approaching the city, they were met, &c.*

11. So, again, when the subject is not dropped, but is made wholly subordinate to the abridged predicate, the latter as a noun stands in the same relation as the full form, and the former modifies it; as, "*I was not aware that he lived in the city*" = *I was not aware of his living in the city.* The *participle* of the predicate is made especially prominent, while the subject seems to remain in the nominative in abridged propositions introduced by the expletive "there;" as, "*Was this owing to there being twelve primary deities among the Gothic nations?*" In such constructions, after "let" with the *infinitive*, the subject seems to be in the objective case; as, "*Let there be light*" = *Let light be or exist.*

12. When the subject noun takes the leading place, the predicate noun agrees with it in case (161, 3); but when the subject is dropped (9), and has no representative in the sentence, or when it becomes subordinate to the abridged predicate (10), the predicate noun is freed from any control of the subject, and remains as the *predicate nominative absolute*; as, "*To be a scholar requires patient and persevering labor;*" "*I was not aware of his being a foreigner;*" "*I am not sure of its being he.*" "*Foreigner*" refers logically to "*his,*" but does not agree with it in case. This case is analogous to that of the adjective when used abstractly (204, 19) or absolutely; as, "*To be good is to be happy.*" For further examples see Analysis, p. 167.

183. Varieties of Partial Compounds.

1. The parts combined may be sentence-elements (161, 2):—

(a.) *Two or more subjects*; "*Despair and anguish fled the struggling soul.*"

(b.) *Two or more predicates*; as, "*She plans, provides, expatiates, triumphs there.*"

The predicate affected by the governing word. Predicate nominative absolute. Varieties of partial compounds.

(c.) *Two or more adjective elements*; as, "*Supreme and undivided homage should be paid to goodness and truth.*"

(d.) *Two or more objective elements* (direct or indirect); as,
 "Who, to the enraptured heart, and ear, and eye,
 Teach beauty, virtue, truth, and love, and melody."

(e.) *Two or more adverbial elements*; as, "*Benefits should be long and gratefully remembered.*"

2. The parts combined may be elements of elements (159, 2).

Any remote element may be compound; as, "*The Esquimaux inhabit a cold and inhospitable country.*" But all such sentences may be regarded as simple.

184. Varieties of Sentences with Abridged Propositions.

I. When the predicate becomes a participle (182, 6).

1. Where the subject is dropped, and the participle used as an adjective,

(a.) Having a simple participle; as, "*A man who perseveres*" = *A persevering man.*

(b.) Having the participle modified; as, "*There are moral principles [which slumber =] slumbering in the souls of the most depraved.*"

2. Where the subject is dropped, and the participle used as a noun,

(a.) Wholly as a noun; as, "*The sighing of the poor.*"

(b.) With the construction of the noun, but limited like the verb;
 As subject or predicate, "*Loving our neighbor as ourselves is fulfilling the law.*"

Object of verb or preposition; "*We should avoid breaking a promise;*"
 "*On approaching the house, the sound of a bell was faintly heard.*"

3. When the subject is dropped, and the participle is used adverbially,

(a.) Denoting time; as, "*Having finished my letter, I returned*" = *When I had finished, &c.*

(b.) Denoting an accompanying action; "*The torrent came rushing from the mountain.*"

4. Where the subject or predicate noun is retained (182, 6),

(a.) The subject noun in the nominative absolute; as, "*The party having arrived, the dinner was prepared.*"

(b.) The predicate noun in the nominative absolute; as, "*Being a servant to everybody is not so agreeable.*"

(c.) The subject and predicate noun both in the nominative; as, "*A youth being their leader, what could they do?*"

(d.) The subject in the possessive limiting the participle used as a noun; as, "*What do you think of his studying law?*"

(e.) The subject in the possessive, and the predicate noun or pronoun in the nominative; as, "*I am not sure of its being the judge, or of its being he.*"

II. When the predicate becomes an infinitive (182, 6).

1. The infinitive without its subject or predicate noun,

(a.) As subject of the sentence; as, "*To see the sun is pleasant.*"

Varieties of sentences with abridged propositions.

(b.) As *attribute* of the predicate; as, "The school is to commence on Monday."

(c.) As both *subject* and *attribute*; as, "To obey is to enjoy;" "He seems to sleep."

(d.) As *adjective element*; as, "Time to come;" "A desire to go."

(e.) As *object* after transitive verbs; as, "She loves to read."

(f.) As *adverbial element* denoting *purpose*; as, "What went ye out to see?"

(g.) As *adverbial element* denoting a *result* (182, 7) after *too*, *than*, *so*, *as*; as, "He is too proud to beg;" "He is wiser than to attempt such an enterprise;" "Be so good as to hear."

2. The infinitive with its subject or predicate noun.

(a.) With its subject objective governed by *for*, and the combination used as subject of the sentence; as, "For you to steal is base."

(b.) With the predicate noun in the nominative, the whole used as subject; as, "To be a scholar requires persevering labor."

(c.) With both subject and predicate noun in the objective, the group being the subject of the sentence; as, "For that boy to be a scholar is impossible;" or, "It is impossible for that boy to be a scholar."

(d.) With its subject in the objective used as object of a transitive verb (197, 1, a.); as, "He ordered the horse to be harnessed."

(e.) With the subject and predicate noun both in the objective, the infinitive being understood; as, "They considered him [to be] a traitor."

185. Exercise.

1. Point out the contracted sentences, and change them to complex or compound sentences:—

Having called the captain, I was ordered to call all hands. Talent is serious, sober, grave, and respectable: tact is all that, and more too. It is the open eye, the quick ear, the judging taste, the keen smell, and the lively touch. The nobility and cavaliers came to the gates to receive him. After contemplating these objects for some time, we set off, and soon arrived at the foot of the great crater of the mountain. The scholarly Arnold, chafed by the attritions of the age, and vexed by the doubt-clouds which darkened upon his gallant soul, lost his trouble in its company, and looked through it (Pilgrim's Progress) to the Bible. It may be painful to dwell on such a representation. I cannot afford, at present, to set before you a vivid picture of the other miseries carried in the train of war.

For we 've sworn by our country's assaulters,
By the virgins they 've dragged from our altars,
That, living, we will be victorious:—
Or that, dying, our death shall be glorious!

Varieties of sentences with abridged propositions.

186. Equivalent Elements.

1. Whenever a sentence undergoes a change in the form of any of its elements, without any material change in the meaning, it is said to be *transformed*, and the new forms of the elements, which express the same, or nearly the same meaning, are called *equivalents*.

Thus, "*After he had discovered Hispaniola*, Columbus returned to Spain" = *Having discovered Hispaniola*, Columbus returned to Spain. Here the subordinate clause denoting time is exchanged to an equivalent abridged proposition denoting time (184, I. 3, a).

2. We may change the form of a sentence

- (a.) By *altering the grammatical construction* of any of its elements;
- (b.) By *supplying* any element suppressed by *ellipsis*;
- (c.) By *transposing* any element to another part of the sentence.

3. We may alter the grammatical construction of an element in the following cases:—

(a.) We may use the active for the passive voice, or the passive for the active; as, "*Columbus discovered America*" = *America was discovered* by Columbus.

(b.) We may change an element of the first class (166, 1) to one of the second, or one of the second to one of the first; as, "*A morning ride is refreshing*" = *A ride in the morning* is refreshing.

(c.) A complex sentence may be changed to a simple sentence (or a *contracted complex*) by abridging its subordinate clause (182, 6); as, "*When the shower had passed, we resumed our journey*" = *The shower having passed, we resumed our journey*.

(d.) A simple sentence may be changed to a complex by expanding any of its elements into a proposition; as, "*A merciful man is merciful to his beast*" = *A man who is merciful, is merciful to his beast*.

(e.) A complex sentence may be changed to a compound, by raising the subordinate clause to an equal rank with the principal, and changing the subordinate connective to a coördinate; as, "*When spring comes, the flowers will bloom*" = *The spring will come, and the flowers will bloom*.

(f.) A compound sentence may be changed to a complex, by depressing one of its propositions into a subordinate rank; as, "*Man has a moral sense, and therefore he is an accountable being*" = *Since man has a moral sense, he is an accountable being*.

(g.) A question for gaining assent (148, 5) may be changed into a declarative sentence, or a declarative sentence may be changed into a question for gaining assent; as, "*Will he plead against me with his great power?*" = *He will not plead against me with his great power*.

(h.) Any sentence is said to be *reconstructed*, or *recast*, when the former construction is wholly disregarded; as, "*That which agrees with the will of God*"

Equivalent elements. Transformation of the active to the passive voice, of a word to a phrase, of a complex to a simple sentence and the reverse, of a complex to a compound sentence and the reverse, of an interrogative to a declarative sentence. Reconstruction.

should please us" = We should be pleased with whatever is agreeable to the will of our heavenly Father.

4. Without altering the grammatical construction:—

(a.) A compound sentence may be contracted by an ellipsis of a common part to a *partial compound* sentence; as, "Bacon was a distinguished writer, Shakspeare was a distinguished writer, and Butler was a distinguished writer" — Bacon, Shakspeare, and Butler were distinguished writers.

(b.) Any contracted compound sentence, by supplying the ellipsis, may be changed to a complete compound; as, "The king and queen were absent" = The king was absent, and the queen was absent.

5. **ELEMENTS TRANSPOSED.** The arrangement of the elements is the *position* which they take in the sentence.

(a.) There are two kinds of arrangement; the *natural* or *grammatical*, and the *inverted* or *transposed*.

(b.) In a proposition, by the natural order, the subject is placed before the predicate; the adjective element is placed before the noun when of the first class, but after the noun when of the second or third; the objective element is placed after the verb which governs it; and the adverbial element commonly follows the objective element; as, "The good boy studied his geography attentively." "The kingdom of Sardinia is situated in the south of Europe."

(c.) An element is *transposed* whenever it is placed out of its natural order; as, "*Great* is Diana of the Ephesians." "*Copernicus these wonders* told." "*Wisely* were his efforts directed."

(d.) When the verb "to be" predicates existence, the subject is not only transposed, but its place is supplied by the expletive "there" (134, 11). So, when a phrase or clause as subject is transposed, its place is supplied by "it" used as an expletive (70, 4).

187. Exercise.

1. *Use the active for the passive, and the passive for the active, in the following examples, supplying the agent where omitted:—*

Wellington is buried in Westminster Abbey. Not a drum was heard, nor a funeral note. Energy of purpose awakens powers before unknown. Jan honor's voice provoke the silent dust? Three of your armies, O Romans, have been slaughtered by Mark Antony. I give my hand and my heart to this vote.

2. *In the following, change any element of the first class, to the second; and the reverse:—*

A marble statue was placed in the grove. Achilles was a Grecian hero. The siege of Troy lasted ten years. In dreams, his song of triumph [he] heard. Strike the golden lyre again. Last came joy's ecstatic trial.

A compound may be changed to a partial compound. Natural and inverted arrangement. An element transposed.

3. *Change the following complex sentences to simple or contracted, complex sentences, by abridging the subordinate clauses :—*

A man who is deceitful can never be trusted. When the orator had finished, the assembly retired. Heard ye the whisper of the breeze, as soft it murmured by? He declares that she is a slave of his. This is the man who deserves commendation. He went to Egypt that he might see the pyramids.

4. *Expand the italicized elements into clauses :—*

The crocuses, *blooming in the garden*, attracted the bees. Hannibal, *the Carthaginian general*, conquered the Romans in four battles. We told him *to leave*. Cæsar should have perished on the brink of the Rubicon *before attempting to cross it*.

Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
Some heart *once pregnant with celestial fire*.

5. *Supply the words omitted by ellipsis :—*

All nature is but art, unknown to thee;
All chance, direction which thou canst not see.
All discord, harmony not understood;
All partial evil, universal good.

6. *Arrange the elements in their natural order :—*

Great is Diana of the Ephesians. Welcome thou art to me. To each honor is given. In fearless freedom he arose. Whom ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you.

7. *See if the following can be improved by transposing any element :—*

I would be Diogenes, were I not Alexander. The parting soul relies on some fond breast. That is the question, to be, or not to be. Then the hills shook, riven with thunder. When creation began we know not.

CONSTRUCTION.

188. Definitions.

1. *Construction* or *synthesis* consists in combining the elements which compose a sentence.

2. The *essential* combination is that of the subject and the predicate (163, 8), and is,—

(a.) A *complete sentence*, when its parts need no modification to express the full thought; as, "Jesus wept."

(b.) An *incomplete sentence*, when the simple assertion is so indefinite as to

Construction. The essential combination. Complete and incomplete sentences.

need the addition of other ideas to express the full and specific thought intended; as, "Landscape fades" (incomplete). "Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight" (complete and inverted).

3. Although in the practical processes of construction the mind is chiefly occupied with the ideas which compose the thought, with little regard to grammatical forms, or the relative rank of the elements as they succeed each other, or the particular order of their collocation, yet, for elementary purposes, the pupil should begin with the principal elements, and show how all others arrange themselves around these.

189. Models for Construction.

Take the simple, but incomplete assertion,—

KING LED.

Add a word to the subject to show that a *particular* king is meant,—

The KING LED.

Add an expression to show *what* king. Thus,—

The KING of Prussia LED.

Add an expression to the predicate to show *what* he led. Thus,—

The KING of Prussia LED *three charges*.

Add still another expression to the predicate, to show *how* he led them. Thus,—

The KING of Prussia LED *three charges in person*.

Thus we have one of Macaulay's complete simple sentences. It may be exhibited thus,—

(1.) The	} KING LED {	(1.) three charges
(2.) of Prussia		(2.) in person.

Take again,—

RETREAT HAD DEPRIVED.

Show that some particular retreat was intended.

The RETREAT HAD DEPRIVED.

Whose retreat?

The RETREAT of Mr. Pitt HAD DEPRIVED.

Deprived *what* country?

The retreat of Mr. Pitt HAD deprived Prussia.

Of what?

The RETREAT of Mr Pitt HAD DEPRIVED Prussia *of her only friend*.

Intimate, by an addition to the predicate, that some event is to follow *almost* immediately, and show what that event is,—

Scarcely HAD the RETREAT of Mr. Pitt DEPRIVED Prussia of her only

Models.

friend, when the death of Elizabeth produced an entire revolution in the politics of the north.—Macaulay.

Here we have a complete complex sentence. It may be exhibited thus,—

(1.) the	} RETREAT HAD DEPRIVED	(1.) Prussia
(2.) of Mr. Pitt		(2.) of her only friend
		(3.) Scarcely
		(4.) when the death of Elizabeth, &c.

190. Exercise.

1. Add to the following incomplete sentences any ideas which will convert them into complete sentences :—

Messenger brought.
They will remember.
Men understood.
Poet says.
History was traced.
Thanks were given.

2. Answer the questions in the following braces :—

(1.) Particular or not?	} WORK WAS BEGUN	(1.) By whom?
(2.) Of what?		(2.) When?
		(3.) Where?
		(4.) Why?

ANALYSIS.

191. Definitions.

1. *Analysis* consists in resolving a sentence into its elements, and in pointing out the offices and relations of each.

2. To analyze a sentence, we should first point out the leading *ideas* which compose the thought (147, 3, 4), taking together as elements all the words which are required to express a full idea. We thus obtain the *subject*, the *predicate*, and the *additions* to each. We should then separate every group of words into its simple elements, and, finally, every simple element of the second or third class, into the words which compose it. We thus reduce the sentence to the parts of speech.

3. *Parsing* consists in naming the parts of speech into which a sentence is resolved by analysis, giving their modifications, relations, agreement, or government, and the rules for their construction.

Analysis. Leading ideas, the subject, predicate, and additions to each.
Parsing.

192. Directions for general Analysis of Sentences.

1. Read the sentence, and determine by its meaning, whether it is *declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory*.
2. Determine the *leading assertion*, and point out the subject and predicate.
3. If any of the parts are inverted, *arrange* them in the natural order.
4. If necessary, supply ellipses.
5. Find all the separate words or groups of words which express distinct ideas added to the subject, and show in what way they modify it.
6. In the same manner dispose of all the additions to the predicate.
7. If neither the subject, nor the predicate, nor any of the additions to either contains a proposition, the sentence is *simple*.
8. But if either contains a proposition, the sentence is *complex*.
9. If the sentence contains two or more independent assertions, it is *compound*, and should first be separated into its component parts, each of which should be analyzed as a simple or a complex sentence.
10. If the subject, predicate, or any of the additions to these should contain two coördinate parts, the sentence is a *partial compound*, and should be analyzed like a simple sentence, with the exception of the compound part; this should be named as a *compound element*, and then resolved into its component parts.
11. If the subject, predicate, or any of the additions to either should contain a *participle*, or an *infinitive* equivalent in its use to a dependent proposition, the sentence is a *contracted complex*, and should be analyzed like a simple sentence. Yet the part derived by abridging a dependent clause (182, 6) should be named, and its equivalent proposition given.

193. Models for general Analysis.

NOTE.—In this kind of analysis, the learner is to find all the leading *ideas* which compose the thought (188, 2), and to point out the words or groups of words employed to express them, as well as the office and relation of each. Having thus found the subject, the predicate, and all the additions to each, he then determines the character of the sentence, and is prepared for the analysis of each group considered as an element. Take the following passage from Macaulay's *Miscellanies* :—

(1.) "In 1789, the Regency Bill occupied the Upper House till the session was far advanced. (2.) When the king recovered, the circuits were beginning. (3.) The judges left town; the lords waited for the return of the oracles of jurisprudence; and the consequence was, that during the whole year only seventeen days were given to the case of Hastings. (4.) It was clear that the matter would be protracted to a length unprecedented in the annals of criminal law."

No. (1.) is a declarative sentence (148, 3). The indefinite or unmodified assertion, is "bill occupied;" of this "bill" is the subject and

"occupied" the predicate (150, 3, 4). To the subject is added "the" to show that the writer had in mind some specific bill; also "regency" to show *what* specific bill was meant. To the predicate is added "the Upper House" to show *which* branch of parliament it occupied; also "in 1789," which is inverted (186, 5), and comes, in the natural order, after "the Upper House." It is added to show in *what year* the event occurred, and finally, the expression "till the session was far advanced," is added to show *how long* the bill occupied the House; and as this last expression is a proposition, the sentence is *complex*. It may be exhibited thus:—

(1.) The	} BILL—OCCUPIED {	(1.) The Upper House
(2.) Regency		(2.) in 1789
		(3.) till the session was far advanced.

No. (2.) is also a declarative sentence. The simple assertion is, "Circuits were beginning." It may be exhibited thus:—

The—CIRCUITS—WERE BEGINNING—when the king recovered.

Here the last element is placed in its natural position, and as it is a proposition, the sentence is *complex*. Let the learner explain the use of each element as in No. 1.

No. (3.) contains three independent assertions, each declarative, and the whole forming a *compound sentence*. The component parts are,—

- (a.) The judges left town;
- (b.) The lords waited for the return of the oracles of jurisprudence;
- (c.) And the consequence was, that during the whole year, only seventeen days were given to the case of Hastings.

The first and second parts are simple sentences, joined by "and" understood, and standing thus:—

The—JUDGES—LEFT—town.

The—LORDS—WAITED—for the return of the oracles of jurisprudence.

The third part is a complex sentence, connected to the preceding by "and," and is thus exhibited:—

The—CONSEQUENCE—WAS, THAT—&c., to the end.

194. Directions for the Analysis of Elements.

NOTE.—This analysis gives the office and relation of all the subordinate ideas, and of all the words in the sentence; that in 193 gives the relation of all the prominent ideas.

1. Resolve the sentence as in 193; and then, regarding each part as an element, classify it as in (156, 2, 3, &c.).

2. If any element contains but one word, it is completely reduced, and may then be parsed (191, 3).

Directions for analysing elements.

3. If an element containing more than one word is simple (167, 168) it must be a *phrase* or a *clause*, and is to be still further analyzed by pointing out

(a.) The *connective*, showing what part it joins.

(b.) The part which expresses the *idea*,—in case of the phrase, the *object*; in case of the clause, the *subject* and *predicate*.

4. If an element is complex or compound, reduce it to its simple elements, and then proceed as in 2 or 3 above.

5. In case of a complex element, point out and dispose of the *principal element* or *basis* (172, 4, 5); then each of the others in the order of their rank (159).

6. In case of a compound element, separate it into its component simple elements, point out and classify the coördinate conjunction which joins them, and then dispose of each as in 2 or 3 above.

7. Thus the sentence is reduced by simple and methodical steps to the parts of speech which enter into it. These all, or a part, may now be parsed in the order of their rank in construction, or in any other order.

195. Models for the Analysis of Sentences and their Elements.

NOTE.—In these examples, the learner is expected to point out the subject and the predicate, and, if necessary, reduce each to the single words which compose it; next, each of the additions to the subject, reducing it as directed in (194, 3) above, and then each addition to the predicate.

1. "George writes."

It is a *simple* sentence, because it contains but one proposition; *declarative*, because it declares something; *George* is the *subject*, because it is that of which the action "writes" is affirmed; *writes* is the *predicate*, because it is that which is affirmed of "George."

It may be exhibited thus:—

GEORGE—WRITES.

2. "The summer shower falls gently."

It is a *simple* sentence, because it contains but one proposition; *declarative*, because it declares something; *shower* is the *simple* or *grammatical subject*; it is simply that of which something is affirmed; *falls* is the *simple* or *grammatical predicate*, because it is that which is affirmed of "showers." The subject is limited by *summer*, a simple adjective element of the first class; *adjective*, because it is used to limit a noun; of the *first class*, because it is a single word joined directly to the subject, without a connective; it limits by answering the question "What kind of?" it excludes the idea of all showers falling at any other time than summer; it is a *simple* element, because nothing is added to it. The subject is also limited by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class; it limits by showing that some particular shower is meant.

Models.

The summer shower is the *complex* or *logical* subject, because it is the grammatical subject with all its limitations. The predicate is limited by *gently*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; it is *adverbial*, because it is added to a verb; it denotes manner; of the *first class*, because it is a single word joined directly to the predicate without a connective; it limits by answering the question "*How?*" it excludes the idea of all showers which do not fall gently; it is *simple*, because nothing is added to it; *falls gently* is the *complex* or *logical* predicate, because it is the grammatical predicate with all its limitations.

It stands thus:—

(1.) The	} SHOWER—FALLS—gently.
(2.) summer	

NOTE.—The same proposition may be analyzed briefly in the following manner:—

It is a simple declarative sentence; *the summer shower* is the logical subject; *shower* is the grammatical subject; it is limited by the two simple adjective elements of the first class, *the* and *summer*; *falls gently* is the logical predicate; *falls* is the grammatical predicate, and is limited by a simple adverbial element of the first class, *gently*.

NOTE.—When the subject or predicate is not modified, the logical subject or predicate is the same as the grammatical. But it is not necessary to make any distinction in such cases; simply say, subject or predicate.

8. "A very high hill overlooks an extensive valley."

It is a simple declarative sentence (why?);

Hill is the simple subject (why?); *A very high hill* is the complex subject (why?);

Overlooks is the simple predicate (why?); *Overlooks an extensive valley* is the complex predicate (why?);

Hill is limited by *a*, a simple adjective element of the first class, and by *very high*, a complex adjective element of the first class, showing what kind of hill; *adjective*, because it limits a noun; *complex*, because the simple element *high* is itself limited by *very*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; of the *first class*, because the basis *high* is a single word joined without a connective to *hill*.

Overlooks is limited by *an extensive valley*, a complex objective element of the first class, showing what it overlooks; *valley* is the *basis* or *principal* part of the objective element, and is limited by *an* and *extensive*, simple adjective elements of the first class. (Why?)

It is exhibited thus:—

(1.) A	} HILL—OVERLOOKS—an extensive valley.
(2.) very high	

4. "To steal is base."

It is a simple declarative sentence.

To steal is the subject (why?). It is an element of the second class, since it has one word (*steal*) to express an *idea*, and another (*to*) to represent its relation.

Models.

Is base is the predicate (why?). It is of the second class, having the attribute *base* to express the predicate idea, and *is*, the copula, to represent its relation (*predicate relation*).

NOTE.—This thorough and minute method of analysis should be often resorted to, for the purpose of giving the learner accurate ideas of the elements and their relations. When these are understood, the general (193) and brief method should be followed.

5. "Who was the author of Junius's Letters has never been satisfactorily determined."

It may be exhibited thus :—

WHO WAS AUTHOR { the
of Junius's Letters— } HAS BEEN DETERMINED { never
satisfactorily.

It is a complex declarative sentence; *complex*, because it contains a principal and a subordinate proposition; *declarative*, because it expresses a declaration. The entire sentence (since the subject is the subordinate clause) is the principal proposition, and the subject of the sentence, namely, "Who was the author of Junius's Letters," is the subordinate substantive proposition, "Who was author," is the simple, and "Who was the author of Junius's Letters," the complex subject.

Has been determined is the simple, and *has never been satisfactorily determined* is the logical predicate. *Has been determined* is modified by *never* and *satisfactorily* (describe them).

Who is both the subject and connective of the subordinate clause; as connective, it is subordinate, but as a subject cannot depend on any superior term, there is nothing to which the subordinate clause can be joined; hence *who* is here a connective without an antecedent term. As a pronoun, it is an interrogative used in a subordinate clause (78, 4), and hence has no definite antecedent.

Was author the simple, and *was the author of Junius's Letters* is the complex predicate; *author* is limited by *the* and by *of Junius's Letters*.

6. "A man who finds not satisfaction in himself, seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

Thus :—

(1.) A
(2.) who finds not satisfaction in himself } MAN SEEKS { (1.) for it
(2.) in vain
(3.) elsewhere.

It is a complex sentence, because it contains two dissimilar clauses. "A man seeks for it in vain elsewhere" is the principal, and "who finds not satisfaction in himself," is the subordinate adjective clause.

Man is the subject of the principal clause.

Seeks is the predicate.

The subject is limited by "a," also by the adjective clause, "who finds not satisfaction in himself," which describes "man."

The complex subject is "A man who finds not satisfaction in himself."

The predicate is limited by "for it," "in vain," and "elsewhere."

Models.

M

The complex predicate is, "seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

Who is the subject of the adjective clause.

Finds is the predicate.

The predicate is limited, first, by "not;" secondly, by "satisfaction;" and thirdly, by "in himself."

Who is a relative pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, according to Rule V.; it is the subject of the proposition, "who finds," &c., according to Rule I., and connects this proposition with "man," the subject of the principal clause, according to Rule XV.

7. "When the wicked are multiplied, transgression increaseth."

Thus:—

TRANSGRESSION INCREASETH—when the wicked are multiplied.

It is a complex sentence. (Why?) "Transgression increaseth" is the principal, and "when the wicked are multiplied," the subordinate clause.

Transgression is the subject of the principal clause.

Increaseth is the predicate.

The predicate is limited by "when the wicked are multiplied," an adverbial clause denoting time. (See Rule IX.) The complex predicate is, "increaseth when the wicked are multiplied."

Wicked is the subject of the subordinate clause.

Are multiplied is the predicate.

When is a subordinate connective (conjunctive adverb of time), and joins the adverbial clause, which it introduces, to the predicate of the principal clause, according to Rule XV. It limits "are multiplied" and "increaseth," according to Rule IX.

8. "Whatever is, is right."

It is a complex sentence. "Whatever (as antecedent) is right," is the principal clause, and "whatever (as relative) is," is the subordinate clause. "Whatever" = *anything* is the subject of the principal clause, and "is right" is the predicate. The subject "whatever" = *anything*, is limited by the subordinate clause "whatever is" = *that is*, of which "whatever" is the subject, and "is" is the predicate. The whole being equivalent to "Anything that is, is right."

9. "The Cynic who twitted Aristippus, by observing that the philosopher who could dine on herbs might despise the company of a king, was well replied to by Aristippus, when he remarked, that the philosopher who could enjoy the company of a king might also despise a dinner of herbs."

This is a complex sentence, containing seven clauses, one principal, and six subordinate.

- (1.) *The Cynic was well replied to by Aristippus,*
- (2.) *Who twitted Aristippus by observing,*
- (3.) *That the philosopher might despise the company of a king,*
- (4.) *Who could dine on herbs,*
- (5.) *When he remarked,*

Models.

(6.) *That the philosopher might also despise a dinner of herbs,*

(7.) *Who could enjoy the company of a king.*

The first is the principal clause, and the others are subordinate.

Cynic is the subject of the principal clause.

Was replied to is the predicate.

The subject, *Cynic*, is limited by "who twitted Aristippus by observing," &c., a complex adjective element of the third class; "who" is the connective and subject, "twitted" is the predicate, and is limited, first, by "Aristippus," a simple objective element of the first class, and also by "by observing that the philosopher might despise the company of a king," a complex adverbial element of the second class; "by observing" is the basis, "by" is the connective, and "observing" is the object; "observing" is limited by "that the philosopher might despise the company of a king," a complex objective element of the third class, of which "that" is the connective; "philosopher" is the subject, and is limited by "who could dine on herbs," an adjective element of the third class; "might despise" is the predicate, and is limited by "the company of a king," a complex objective element of the first class.

The predicate, *was replied to*, is limited, first, by "well," a simple adverbial element of the first class, and by "by Aristippus," an adverbial element of the second class, and also by the clause "when he remarked, that the philosopher," &c., a complex adverbial element of the third class, of which "when" is the connective, "he" is the subject, and "remarked" is the predicate; "remarked" is limited by "that the philosopher," &c., a complex objective element of the third class, of which "that" is the connective, "philosopher" is the subject, "the philosopher who could enjoy the company of a king," is the logical subject, "might despise" is the predicate, and "might also despise a dinner of herbs" is the logical predicate; the subject, "philosopher," is limited by the clause "who could enjoy the company of a king," a complex adjective element of the third class, of which "who" is the connective and subject, "could enjoy" is the predicate, and is limited by "the company of a king," a complex objective element of the first class; the predicate "might despise" is limited by "a dinner of herbs," a complex objective element of the first class, of which "dinner" is the basis, and is limited by "of herbs," a simple adjective element of the second class.

10. "A ship *gliding over the waves*, is a beautiful object."

This is a *simple* sentence, or, more properly, a *contracted complex*.

Ship is the simple, and

A ship gliding over the waves is the complex subject.

Is object is the simple, and

Is a beautiful object is the complex predicate.

The subject, *ship*, is limited by "gliding over the waves," a complex adjective element of the first class; it is equivalent to "which glides over the waves," and is therefore an abridged proposition, obtained by dropping the subject and connective "which," and changing "glides," the predicate, into the participle "gliding."

Object is limited by "a" and "beautiful."

Models.

11. Socrates and Plato were distinguished philosophers."

It is a *partial* or *contracted* compound sentence.

Socrates and *Plato* form the compound subject, because they are united by "and," and have a common predicate, "were philosophers."

The subject is not limited.

The predicate is limited by "distinguished," an adjective element of the first class, used to describe "philosophers."

And is a coördinate conjunction, and connects the two simple subjects, according to Rule XI.

12. "If men praise your efforts, suspect their judgment; if they censure them, your own."

It is a compound sentence, consisting of two coördinate parts; each part consisting of a principal and a subordinate clause.

The natural order would be, "Suspect the judgment of men, if they praise your efforts; your own, if they censure them."

There is an ellipsis of the principal clause in the second part; this, if supplied, would be, "If they censure them, suspect your own judgment."

In the first part, "suspect their judgment" is the principal clause, and, "if men praise your efforts" the subordinate. In the second part, after the ellipsis is supplied, "suspect your own judgment" is the principal clause, and "if they censure them" is the subordinate. "You" (understood) is the subject of the principal clause in the first part, "suspect" is the predicate; it is limited, first, by "their judgment," a complex objective element of the first class, used to answer the question "What?" and also by "if men praise your efforts," an adverbial element of the third class, denoting condition. (Analyze according to the model.)

"You" (understood) is the subject of the principal clause in the second part; "suspect" is the predicate; it is limited by "your own judgment," a complex objective element of the first class, and also by "if they censure them," an adverbial element of the third class, denoting condition, &c.

The two coördinate parts of the sentence are connected by the adversative conjunction "but" understood, which denotes opposition or contrast.

196. Exercise.

Analyze the following sentences according to the models:—

A noble income, nobly expended, is no common sight.

Human foresight often leaves its proudest possessor only a choice of evils.

Applause is the spur of noble minds; the end and aim of weak ones.

Grant graciously what you cannot refuse safely.

Most men know what they hate; few what they love.

He who openly tells his friends all that he thinks of them, must expect that they will secretly tell his enemies much that they do not think of him.

Models.

That nations sympathize with their monarch's glory, that they are improved by his virtues, and that the tone of morals rises high when he that leads the band is perfect, are truths admitted with exultation, and felt with honest pride.

Highly elated by his unexpected good fortune, he returned home. Saving carefully the fruits of his labor, he at length was able to purchase a farm.

A pretended patriot, he impoverished his country.

SYNTAX OF WORDS.

197. Rules for Construction.

RULE I. A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition, must be in the nominative case.

RULE II. A noun or pronoun used as the *attribute* of a proposition, must be in the nominative case.

RULE III. A *pronoun* must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in person and number.

RULE V. An *adjective* or *participle* must belong to some noun or pronoun.

RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *explain* or *identify* another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case.

RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun by denoting *possession*, must be in the possessive case.

RULE VIII. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case.

RULE IX. *Adverbs* are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs.

RULE X. The nominative case *independent*, and the *interjection*, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements.

Rules,—Subject, Attribute, Pronoun, Verb, Adjective, Noun in apposition,—in the possessive—in the objective,—Adverbs, Case independent, Interjections, Coördinate conjunctions.

RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

(1.) If it agrees with them taken *conjunctly*, it must be in the *plural number*.

(2.) But if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(3.) If it agrees with *one*, and *not* the other, it must take the number of that one.

RULE XIII. A *preposition* is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the latter depends.

RULE XIV. A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a preposition must be in the objective case.

RULE XV. *Subordinate* connectives are used to join dissimilar elements.

RULE XVI. The *infinitive* has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the verb, and, when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits.

RULE XVII. *Participles* have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*.

RULES, CAUTIONS, AND REMARKS.

198. The Subject.

1. **RULE I.** A noun or pronoun used as the *subject* of a proposition must be in the nominative case; as, "*Cæsar* conquered Gaul;" "*I* have found a man *who* can teach all *that* is necessary to be known."

(a.) A *letter*, *symbol*, *phrase*, or *clause*, when used as the subject, must be considered as a noun in the nominative singular; as, "*A* is a vowel;" "*+* is the sign of addition;" "*To steal* is base;" "*That you have wronged me* doth appear in this."

(b.) A noun or pronoun, as the subject of an abridged proposition, is in the *nominative absolute* with a participle (216, 2), when its case depends upon no other word; but in the *objective* with an infinitive when its case depends upon a verb or a preposition; as, "*Shame being lost*, all virtue

Rules,—Nouns joined by Coördinate conjunctions. Prepositions, Object of a preposition, Subordinate connectives, Infinitives, Participles. The subject nominative. A letter, symbol, &c. Nominative absolute.

is lost;" "They requested *him to leave*;" "For *you to be released*, and for *me to be burdened*, is obviously unjust."

2. A noun or pronoun may be in the nominative, though not the subject, (1.) when used in the predicate (200, 1); (2.) when in apposition with the subject, or the predicate nominative (208, 1); (3.) when used to denote the person addressed (214); (4.) when used in a mere exclamation (214); (5.) when used in certain cases as subject or predicate in abridged propositions (200, b.).

3. In the imperative mode, the subject is always a pronoun of the second person, even when the compellative (157, 3) is expressed, and is usually omitted; as, "Son, arise;" "Go, my friend." It is also often omitted after *but*, *when*, *while*, *if*, and *though*; also after comparisons made by *as*, and *than*; as, "We shall go, *if* [it is] possible;" "Though poor, luxurious; though submissive, vain;" "There is no heart but [*what*, or *it*] must feel them;" "The disaffection was spread far wider than was supposed."

4. The subject is commonly placed before the predicate, but in the imperative mode, in direct questions, in exclamatory sentences, in suppositions without a connective, in sentences arranged for rhetorical effect, in sentences introduced by the expletives "there" and "it," and in the governing clause of a direct quotation (170, 1), either the verb or its auxiliary precedes the subject; as, "Go ye into all the world, and preach [*ye*] the gospel to every creature;" "Doth my father yet live?" "How is the great fallen!" "Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes;" "Great is Diana of the Ephesians;" "Because there was much water there." "It is natural to man," said Patrick Henry, "to indulge in the illusions of hope."

5. When the subject of a sentence is a phrase or a clause, the most common arrangement is to place the subject after the predicate (4.) and fill its vacant place by the expletive "it," a word adapted to this idiom, but not necessary to the construction. When the subject is before the predicate, the expletive should not be used. The following sentence, therefore, is wrong,—“That the soul be without knowledge, it is not good.” The following sentences are faulty for want of the expletive, because *which*, the object of the infinitive subject, is erroneously made subject of the following verb. "Why do ye that *which* [it] is not lawful to do on the sabbath days?" "We have done that *which* [it] was our duty to do."

6. The object of the verb in the active voice, becomes its subject in the passive voice; as, "John granted the *Magna Charta*" = "The *Magna Charta* was granted by John."

CAUTION I. *Never use the objective as the subject of a finite verb.* Say, I did it,—not *Me* did it.

NOTE.—This caution should be specially heeded in the construction of subjects consisting of a personal pronoun used jointly with a noun or other pronoun, in the use of the relative and interrogative pronouns, in the use of a noun or pronoun as a term of comparison after *than* or *as*, and in the answers to questions. See examples (199, 3).

The nominative not always subject. Subject understood. Subject after the predicate. Subject and object with the active, or passive voice.

199. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following examples, and parse the SUBJECTS :—

Those who would give the highest training to the mind, must furnish to it deeds of excellence, tales of heroism. How beautiful an object is a tree growing with all its foliage, freely and fairly on a sheltered lawn ! Ye hills, lift up your voices ; let the shaggy woods upon your summits wave with adoration. Has reason fled from our borders ? Have we ceased to reflect ? It is madness to suppose that the Union can be preserved by force. There is great economy in giving pleasure to children. A trifling gift, a little kindness, goes a great way and is long remembered. It is natural for man to indulge in the illusions of hope. To err is human, to forgive divine. It was said that fifty guineas had been paid for a single ticket. It was determined to examine witnesses at the bar of the Commons. The doves besought the hawk to defend them. The captain commanded his company to march.

MODEL I. "Happiness depends upon the prudent constitution of the habits."—*Paley*.

This is a simple sentence, containing three sentence-elements.

(a.) The subject,—“happiness.”

(b.) The predicate,—“depends ;” and

(c.) An adverbial element,—“upon the constitution of the habits.”

The adverbial element is complex,—having “upon constitution” for its basis or principal element,—“upon” being the connective, and “constitution” the object,—hence, it is of the second class. “Constitution” is limited by “the” and “of the habits,” both adjective elements,—one of the first, and the other of the second class.

“Happiness” is a common noun, third, sing. neut. nom. and is used as the subject. Rule I.

MODEL II. “It is evident that his conduct was directed by a profound policy.”—*Macaulay*.

This is a complex sentence.

Arranged in the natural order, it would be,—“That his conduct was directed by a profound policy is evident (198, 5).” In either form it contains two general elements.

(a.) The subject,—“That his conduct was directed by a profound policy.”

(b.) The predicate—“is evident.”

The subject in either form, is an element of the third class, having “that” for a connective, serving here to render the proposition subordinate, without joining it to a superior term (226, 2) ; it is used as a noun,

third, sing. neut., and since it is the subject, it must be in the nominative case, by Rule I. *a*. It is also represented by the expletive "it" (70, 4), of the same person, number, gender, and case as the clause, and is grammatically pleonastic, but is essential to this peculiar form, and is used to introduce the sentence in an agreeable way.

The predicate is of the second class, having "is" for the copula or connective, and "evident" for the attribute.

MODEL III. "The patriots not dispersing, Pitcairn ordered his men to fire."

This is a contracted complex sentence, that is, a simple sentence having abridged propositions for its elements. It contains four sentence-elements,—

- (a.) The subject—"Pitcairn"
- (b.) The predicate—"ordered."
- (c.) Objective element—"his men to fire."
- (d.) Adverbial element—"the patriots not dispersing."

The subject is not modified. The predicate is modified by the double object, "his men to fire" (212, 1, *a*). "Men" is the *direct*, and "to fire," the *attributive* object. The combination is derived from the objective proposition "that his men should fire"—"men" being the subject, and "should fire" the predicate.

"Men" is a common noun, third person, plural number, masculine gender, and is virtually the subject of "to fire," by (198, 1, *b*.); but since the proposition is abridged (182, 6), it becomes, with "to fire," the object of "ordered." "To fire," is a regular intransitive (82, 11) verb, infinitive mode, present tense, and is used as a noun to form the attributive object of "ordered."

The predicate is further modified by "the patriots not dispersing," an abridged proposition equivalent to "as the patriots did not disperse," and is used to show the *occasion* or *reason* for the order. In the full form, it would be connected with "ordered" by "as;" but in the abridged form, it is grammatically (not logically) (147, 4) set free, and hence is said to be absolute,—"patriots," the subject, still remaining in the nominative by (198, 1, *b*.), or Rule X., *d*.

2. Construct or select examples to illustrate the subject in either form, as given in the Models.

3. Correct, by the Caution, the following examples, and any others like them which you may speak or hear.

You and me will go together. Him that is studious will improve. She found the place sooner than us. Them that seek wisdom will be wise. They are people whom one would think might be trusted. Who

Models.

told you the story? Him and her. I know it as well as him or her. Who saw the eclipse? Us. They have more friends than me. Them are the ones. My brother is a much better singer than him. We are not so much to be blamed as him that upset the boat. Who came in at the door? Me. Scotland and thee did each in other live. Avoid whomsoever is in a passion. There were present only him and me. You are in fault and not me. I know not whom are expected.

MODEL.—“You and me will go together” is incorrect, because the objective pronoun *me* is made the subject of the verb *will go*; but by Caution I., the objective should never be used as the subject of a finite verb. Correct, “You and I will go together.”

200. A Noun or Pronoun as Attribute.

1. RULE II. A noun or pronoun used as the *attribute* of a proposition must be in the nominative case; as, “I am *he* ;” “I, who walk *queen* of the gods.”

(a.) A *letter*, *mark*, *phrase*, or *clause*, used substantively as the attribute of a proposition, must be regarded as a noun in the nominative case; as, “That letter is *h* ;” “To steal is to *purloin* ;” “A fourth mistake in relation to happiness is, *that we make our provision only for the present world*.”—*Buckminster*.

(b.) A noun or pronoun used as the attribute in an abridged proposition, after the participle or the infinitive of the copula, must agree in case with the subject, or with any *equivalent* of the subject to which the abridged expression may be joined; except, when the subject is changed to the possessive, or is wholly dropped from the sentence, it remains in the *predicate nominative absolute*.

EXAMPLES.—(1.) In the *nominative* after a participle to agree with its subject; as, “You being the *captain*, I must obey” = Since you are the captain, &c.

(2.) In the *objective* after the participle to agree with an equivalent of the subject; as, “Ananias descended with the elders, and with a certain *orator* [who was] named *Tertullus* ;” *who*, the true subject, being dropped by (182, 6).

(3.) In the *objective* case after the infinitive to agree with the subject; as, “I believed *him* to be a *traitor*” = I believed *that he was a traitor*.

(4.) In the *nominative absolute* after the participle preceded by the possessive of the subject; as, “I was not aware of *his* being a *foreigner*” = I was not aware that *he was a foreigner*.

(5.) In the *nominative absolute* after the participle or infinitive, the subject of the full proposition having no equivalent, and being wholly dropped from the sentence; as, “To be a *king* is to be a *sovereign* ;” “Being a *scholar* is

The attribute. A letter, mark, &c. The attribute in abridged propositions.

not being an *idler*." See a parallel construction of the predicate adjective (205, 19).

2. A noun or pronoun is the *attribute* of a proposition when it is used with the copula, or any copulative verb (82, 9), to form the predicate. It usually denotes the same person or thing as the subject, and when it denotes a person, it agrees with the subject not only in *case*, but in *gender* and *number*. In the case of copulative verbs, the predicate seems to have two attributes; the one the participle or attributive part of the verb, and the other the following noun or adjective; as, "He was called *John*." "The boy was made *sick*."

3. "It," used in a vague sense, not unlike the algebraic symbol for an unknown quantity, is made the subject representing a noun or pronoun as attribute in any number, person, or gender; as, "It is *I*;" "It is *they*;" "It is *James*;" "It is *she*."

4. The number and person of the verb are affected by the subject, and not by the predicate noun; as, "Apples *are* fruit;" "His meat *was* (not *were*) locusts and wild honey."

5. After the copulative verbs *regard*, *consider*, *reckon*, *name*, and some others, the connective "as" precedes the attribute when the verb is passive, and the attributive object when it is active, to denote the *capacity* in which the subject or direct object is to be taken; as, "He was regarded *as* an able *advocate*;" "They regarded him *as* an able *advocate*."

6. The predicate nominative is commonly placed after the verb, and the subject nominative before it; but in questions both direct and indirect, in poetry, and in sentences arranged for rhetorical effect, this order is changed; as, "Is it *I*?" "Who is *he*?" "And *I* thy victim now remain;" "I was eyes to the blind, and feet was *I* to the lame."

7. The subject may be a noun, and the attribute a clause, as in (199, 1, a.), or the subject may be a clause, and the attribute a noun in the same case as the clause; as, "Will he do it? is the *question*."

CAUTION I. *Never use the objective as the attribute after a FINITE verb, nor the nominative after an INFINITIVE preceded by its objective subject.* Say, "It is *I*,"—not *It is me*; "I knew it to be *him*,"—not *I knew it to be he*.

CAUTION II. *Avoid constructions in which the thing denoted by the subject is falsely identified by the attribute.* Say, "The noun *James* is the *NAME* of the actor,"—not "The noun *James* is the *actor*."

201. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the following sentences, and parse the ATTRIBUTES:—*

John was called the beloved disciple. Rhetoric, logic, and grammar are three arts that should always walk hand in hand. Embarrassed, obscure, and feeble sentences are, generally, if not always, the result

A noun or pronoun as attribute. "It." "As," after copulative verbs. Predicate nominative sometimes before the verb. Subject or attribute a clause.

of embarrassed, obscure, and feeble thought. What is man, that thou art mindful of him? He returned a friend, who came a foe. It still remains a monument of his greatness. Warsaw was the capital of Poland. Mecca is regarded by the Mohammedans as (200, 5) a holy city. The inhabitants of the Arabian deserts are styled Bedouins.

A second mistake upon the subject of happiness is, that it is to be found in prosperity. The truth is, that of the objects of human acquisition, very few are, beyond a certain limit, even the means of happiness. To be an Englishman in London, a Frenchman in Paris, a Spaniard in Madrid, is no easy matter; and yet it is necessary. I did not dream of its being he. Do you take it to be her? For him ever to become a correct writer is out of the question. Widowhood is the state of being a widow. A second objection raised against our Lord's being the Son of God and King of Israel, was taken from his mean condition."

MODEL I. "Talent is something, but tact is every thing."—*London Atlas*.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two coördinate clauses.

"Talent is something" is the first, and "tact is every thing" is the second; it is joined to the first by "but," a coördinate adversative conjunction, used here to denote a contrast between the two thoughts. "*Something*" is a common noun, of the third pers.—sing. num.—neut. gen. and in the nominative case, being used as the attribute of the proposition "Talent is something," according to Rule II. Repeat it.

In the same manner parse "*thing*," in the second clause.

MODEL II. "The reason is, that the outward signs of a dull man and a wise man, are the same."—*Sydney Smith*.

This is a complex sentence. "Reason" is the simple, and "the reason" the complex subject. The rest of the sentence, "is, that the outward signs, &c.," is the predicate; "is" is the copula, and the substantive clause, "that the outward signs of a dull man and a wise man are the same," is the attribute, and is used as a noun in the nominative case, according to Rule II., a. The attribute is an element of the third class, having "that" for its connective, and "signs" for its simple subject, and "are same" for its simple predicate. "The outward signs of a dull man and a wise man" is the complex subject,—and "are the same," the complex predicate. Let the learner point out the modifications of the simple subject. "That," in this case (see 199, Model II.), may be considered as joining the clause as a dependent element to the subject, while the copula joins it only as a *predicated* element. If the clause were *assumed* of the subject, "that" would be the only connective. Thus, "The reason *that the outward signs, &c.*" The preposition

has a similar connection when a *phrase* becomes the attribute; as, "The boy is in the field." Compare "The boy in the field."

MODEL III. "It is almost as hard a thing to be a poet in despite of fortune, as it is in despite of nature."—*Cowley*.

This is a complex sentence, consisting of one principal and one subordinate clause. It is introduced by the expletive "it," which is disposed of as in Model II., 199. Arranged grammatically, it stands,— "To be a poet in despite of fortune, is almost as hard a thing as it is in despite of nature." The logical subject is, "to be a poet in despite of fortune;" the logical predicate is, "is almost as hard a thing as [to be a poet] is in despite of nature." The grammatical subject is "to be a poet," and is limited by the complex phrase "in despite of fortune." This is an adverbial element, since it limits not "poet," but the whole idea, "to be a poet." The copula is "is," the simple attribute, "thing;" it is parsed as in Model I. The attribute "thing" is limited by "a," and by "as hard as [to be a poet] is in despite of nature," a complex adjective element; it is of the first class, since the basis is "hard;" it is complex, since the basis is limited by "as [to be a poet] is in despite of nature," which shews a comparison between two things, or the two conditions of being a poet, and would be a comparison of equality, but for the effect of "almost." In the subordinate clause, "as" is the connective, and joins the adverbial clause to "hard,"—the connection is strengthened by the correlative adverb "as" in the principal clause. The subordinate clause is introduced by the expletive "it," and when completed and arranged grammatically, stands "[to be a poet] in despite of nature is [hard]." This clause is analyzed like the principal clause.

"Poet" is a part of the grammatical subject of both clauses; "to be" is not the grammatical subject, since it no more expresses an *idea* than does the copula (80, 5). The *simple* idea is, "to be a poet."

"Poet" is a common noun, 3d pers. sing. masc. nom. and is used as the attribute of an abridged proposition, namely, "That one should be a poet in despite of fortune, &c." = "To be a poet in despite of fortune, &c." The subject "one" is entirely dropped from the sentence in abridging the proposition, and hence by Rule II., 1, b., "poet" is in the predicate nominative absolute. See 216, 1, Model V.

2. Construct, analyze, and parse examples of your own similar to the preceding.

3. Correct by the Cautions, not only the following examples, but any other similar ones heard in conversation:—

Is it me? No; but it is him. I never thought of its being him; I took it to be she. Whom do you think it is? It may have been her,

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but I always supposed it to be he. Whom do people say it is? They say they do not know whom it is. Who do you think it is? I think it is them. I cannot believe it to be he. If I were him, I would know whom it is. If I had been sure of its being her, I should have been present.

The noun is the agent and the verb is the action. What part of speech is each boy in this room? The first person is the speaker. The animal horse is a noun. To be convicted of bribery, was then a crime altogether unpardonable. *I* is the first person. "Have written" is the present perfect tense.

MODELS. "It is her" is incorrect, because the attribute "her" is in the objective case; but by Caution I. the attribute of a finite verb should never be in the objective case. It should be, "It is *she*."

"I took it to be he," is incorrect, because the nominative "he" follows the infinitive "to be," preceded by its objective subject "it." By Caution I. it should be, "I took it to be *him*."

"*You* is the second person" is incorrect, because "you" being a pronoun is not a person, and hence is falsely identified by "person." By Caution II. we should avoid such constructions. It should be, "*You* is of the second person," that is, a pronoun of the second person.

202. Agreement of the Pronoun.

1. RULE III. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender; as, "Those *who* are most consistent are not more unlike to others, than *they* are to *themselves*."

(a.) A pronoun relating to a collective noun in the singular, is put in the neuter singular, when the noun denotes *unity*, but in the masculine or feminine plural, when it denotes *plurality*; as, "A civilized people has no right to violate *its* solemn obligations, because the other party is uncivilized;" "The committee having made *their* report, were discharged."

(b.) A pronoun relating to an antecedent consisting of coördinate terms, agrees with it by Rule XII. See also (220, 1, a. b., &c.).

2. Interrogative pronouns commonly refer to objects unknown to the speaker; and hence the person, number, and gender must be *assumed* till the person or thing inquired for becomes known. Although the pronoun may not agree with the *true* antecedent, it does agree, by rule, with the *assumed*, and consistency should be preserved in every reference to it. The following sentence is wrong,—"*Who* was not charmed with the music *they* heard?" *Was* should be changed to *were*, or *they* to *he*. Again, a pronoun relating to a singular antecedent limited by *many* *a* is commonly put in the plural; as, "*I*

The pronoun,—relating to a collective noun—to coördinate terms. Interrogatives relate to an assumed object. Pronouns without an antecedent.

have heard many an act of devotion in my life, had heaven vouchsafed me grace to profit by them.”—Scott.

3. The pronoun “it,” when used as in (200, 3) has no antecedent; as, “It rains;” “It is David.” “It” is often used to refer to a young child, or to animals, when the sex is disregarded; as, “The true friend of the child is he who regards *its* future well-being;” “The raccoon feeds chiefly by night, keeping in *its* hole during the day.” As an expletive, “it” either has no antecedent, as, “Come and trip it as you go,” or it refers to some phrase or clause transposed from its natural position; as, “It is good for me to be afflicted.” See 70, 4.

4. A pronoun sometimes refers (apparently contrary to the general rule) to a noun, taken from its ordinary signification; as, “We studied Woodbridge’s *Elements* of Geography on *its* first appearance before the public.” “When we say *books* is a noun, we classify *it*,” that is, the *word*, not the *objects* themselves; “Herod, *which* (not *who*) is another name for cruelty.”

5. The English language being destitute of a pronoun of the third person, which may apply equally to either sex, an erroneous use of *they*, referring to *person*, *any one*, or *some one*, has been adopted even by respectable writers to conceal the gender, or to avoid an awkward use of *he* or *she*, thus: “If any one would test these rules for the preservation of health, *they* (*he* or *she*) must persevere in all states of the weather.” The want of such a pronoun is still more apparent when the speaker has a definite person before his mind, and wishes to conceal the gender; thus: “The person who gave me this information desired me to conceal — name.” When the person referred to belongs to an assemblage, known to be composed wholly of males, or wholly of females, the masculine or feminine pronoun should be used accordingly. But when the person belongs to an assemblage of males and females, usage has sanctioned the employment of a masculine pronoun; thus, “Is any among you afflicted? let *him*” (not *them*,—not *him* or *her*) “pray.”

6. When things or animals are personified, they should be represented as persons by the pronouns employed; as, “Next *Anger* rushed, *his* eyes on fire.” “The wolf *who* from the nightly fold fierce drags the bleating prey.”

7. The pronoun usually follows its antecedent, but sometimes it is placed first; as, “Hark! *they* whisper; angels say.”

8. Relative and interrogative pronouns are usually placed at the beginning of their clauses, even though the order of construction would assign them some other position; as, “Paternus had but one son, *whom* he educated himself.”

9. The relative in the objective is sometimes omitted; as, “Here is the present [which] he gave me.” The antecedent is not unfrequently omitted; as, “[He] Who steals my purse, steals trash.”

The antecedent is not unfrequently a part of a sentence; as, “The boy closed the blinds, *which* darkened the room;” and sometimes a possessive; as, “Supreme authority, strictly speaking, is only *His* who created the universe.”

The want of a pronoun common gender. Objects personified. Position of the antecedent. Position of Relatives and Interrogatives. Relative omitted.

10. In disposing of a personal pronoun, two rules should be given, one for its agreement, and one for its construction; in disposing of a relative, we should add to these the rule for it as a connective; and in case of *what*, *whatever*, or *whatsoever*, still another to explain its use as an adjective.

11. The construction of the relative is independent of its antecedent. It may be in the *nominative case*, as subject of a finite verb—*nominative absolute*, *possessive case*, or in the *objective case*, governed by a transitive verb, or by a preposition; as, “*They who speak.*” “*We ordered the horses to be harnessed, which being done, we commenced our journey.*” “*He hastened to the palace of his sovereign, into whose presence his hoary locks and mournful visage soon obtained admission.*” “*The person whom I saw.*” “*Whom did you take him to be?*” “*The man whom they call the janitor.*” “*This is the rule to which we called his attention.*”

12. The relative *which* formerly referred as well to persons as things; as, “*Our Father which art in heaven.*” It was sometimes preceded by the definite article; as, “*In the which ye also walked sometime.*”—*Bible*. When used interrogatively, *which* may refer to persons; as, “*Which of the two was the wiser man?*”

13. The relative pronoun is

(a.) *Restrictive*, when it introduces a clause which restricts the general idea denoted by the antecedent,—

(b.) *Explanatory*, when it simply resumes the idea expressed by the antecedent, either in its full extent or as previously defined.

When used in a *restrictive* sense, it joins the proposition which it introduces to the antecedent, imparting to the clause the qualities of an adjective. When thus used, it often has, prefixed to the antecedent, a *correlative*, such as *the*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*; the adjective clause becomes a necessary addition to the antecedent to complete the limitation intimated by these words. When used in an *explanatory* way, the relative introduces an additional proposition, and is equivalent to *and he*, *and she*, *and it*, *and they*; as, “*He gave me a book, which he requested me to read*” = *He gave me a book, and he requested me to read it.*

That, *what*, and *as*, are always used restrictively. *Who* and *which* may be either restrictive or explanatory.

14. When the relative is governed by a preposition, it is generally best to place the latter at the beginning of the clause; as, “*This is the subject to which he alluded,*” not “*which he alluded to.*” But when the relative *that* is thus governed, the preposition is always placed at the end; as, “*Here is the last bridge that we shall come to.*” It is better not to employ *that* when the governing preposition is understood; yet sometimes it is so used; as, “*In the day that thou eatest thereof, thou shalt surely die.*”

15. The compound relatives *whoever*, *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*, differ from the simple in two respects; (1.) they

Construction of the relative. Former use of *which*. Restrictive and explanatory use of the relative. Position of the relative when the object of a preposition. The relatives *whoever*, *whoso*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

show that the antecedent is to be taken *universally*, that is, in the full extent of its application; (2.) the antecedent, especially in the compounds of *who* and *what*, is generally understood, and hence these words must either have a double construction or an antecedent must be supplied; as, "*Whoever seeks, shall find*" = *Any one who seeks shall find*; "*The soldiers made proclamation that they would sell the empire to whoever [any one who] would purchase it at the highest price.*"

16. The words *what*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever* differ from other pronouns in another important respect; they combine in one word both the *relative* and its *correlative* (13), and thus are equivalent to *the, this, that, these, those—**which*; hence, they perform the office of a limiting adjective, and at the same time that of a relative pronoun; and hence, too, unlike all other relative pronouns, they are placed before the antecedent (except as in 18 below) when expressed (75, 5, and 76, 3); the compounds differ from the simple *what* as above (15); sometimes the simple *what* is separated from the affix by the antecedent; as, "*Whatsoever plague, whatsoever sickness there may be, what prayer and supplication soever be made by any man.*"—1 Kings viii. 37, 38. (See 77, 5, 6, 7).

17. *Whoever, whatever, whichever, whichever, and whatsoever* are often used to introduce and connect an *adversative* subordinate clause (see Anal. 327, 6); as, "*Whatever you may say, he persists in doing it.*" In this case an *adversative* preposition is understood to govern the antecedent; as, "*Whatever,*" that is, [*Notwithstanding*] *whatever* useful or engaging endowments we possess, virtue is requisite in order to their shining with proper lustre" = *Notwithstanding all those useful or engaging endowments which we possess, &c.* Here *endowments* is governed by *notwithstanding*, and *which* by *possess*. It is an error to say, as some do, that *whatever*, here, is simply an adjective, for then we should have no relative word to connect the clauses.

18. *Whatever* and *whatsoever* are often used to express *universality* (15), emphatically; as, "*I have no confidence whatever in the proposed measure.*" Here, as in comparisons after *than* or *as*, the subject of the subordinate clause being given, the rest is to be supplied; as, "*I have no confidence whatever [it may be] in the proposed measure.*" It is an error here to suppose that *whatever* is a mere adjective, or is like the emphatic personal pronoun *himself*, as in the following,—"*The declarations contained in them [the Scriptures] rest on the authority of God himself; and there can be no appeal from them to any other authority whatsoever*" [that authority may be]. Care should be taken in these difficult constructions not to make a pleonastic use of a personal pronoun or other word. The following sentence is faulty; "*Whatsoever he saith unto you, do it;*" omit *it*.

19. When interrogative clauses are quoted indirectly (170, 1), the interrogative pronoun is used indefinitely, having only an implied antecedent (2 above); as, "*What shall I do? I know not what I shall do.*" Here the whole clause is the object of *know*, and *what* of *shall do*. When such clauses are abridged, thus, "*I know not what to do;*" the whole expression "*What to do,*" is the double object of *know*, and *what* is the object of "*to do.*" So, "*I know not whom to send.*"

What, whatever, and whatsoever, include a *correlative*. Compound relatives used *adversatively*. *Emphatic universality*. *Interrogative pronouns*.

20. The relative *that* is always restrictive, and should be used,—

(1.) After the interrogative *who* ; as, "*Who that* marks the fire still sparkling in each eye," &c.

(2.) After an adjective in the superlative degree ; as, "He was the *last that* left."

(3.) After *very*, *all*, *same* ; as, "This is the *very* book *that* I want." "Is not this *all that* you ask?" "He is the *same* person *that* I took him to be."

(4.) When the relative refers to an antecedent denoting both persons and things ; as, "Here are the *persons and papers that* were sent for."

21. Instead of *in which*, *by which*, *of which*, &c., the equivalent relative adverbs *where*, *when*, *whereby*, *whereof*, &c., are used, like the pronoun, to join an adjective clause to its antecedent ; as, "We discovered the place *where* the goods had been concealed."

CAUTION I. *Avoid the use of a noun and pronoun as subject or object of the same verb, unless great emphasis is required.* Say, "The boy did it,"—not, "the boy, he did it."

CAUTION II. *Avoid the use of a plural pronoun having a singular antecedent.* Say, "Let every one attend to *his* (not *their*) work."

CAUTION III. *In the use of a pronoun, avoid ambiguity in its reference to an antecedent.*

CAUTION IV. *In arranging nouns or pronouns of different persons, a pronoun of the second, should be placed before one of the first ; as, "You and I," not, "I and you ;" a noun of the third, before a pronoun of the first or second ; as, "George and I," "George and you," "George, and you, and I,"—not, "I and George," "You and George," or, "I, and you, and George."*

CAUTION V. *Avoid the use of who, when speaking of animals and inanimate objects, and of which, when speaking of persons.* Say, "The cat *which* mews," not *who* mews.

CAUTION VI. *Avoid a change of number, or a change of pronouns, when reference is made to the same antecedent in the same sentence.* Say, "I know you, and I love you too," not, "I know thee and I love you too."

CAUTION VII. *A pronoun relating to an antecedent consisting of coördinate terms of different persons or genders, should agree with the first person rather than the second or third, and with the second rather than the third, and with the masculine gender rather than the feminine.* Say, You and Charles are learning *your* lesson,—not, *their* lesson. "If a man smite the eye of his *servant*, or the eye of his *maid*, that it perish, he shall let *him* (not *her*, nor *them*) go free for his eye's sake."—*Bible*.

The relative *that*, when it should be used. *In which*, *by which*, &c. Cautions.

203. Exercise.

I. *Analyze the sentences, and parse the pronouns, in the following examples:—*

Ye, therefore, who love mercy, teach your sons to love it too. Other sheep I have, which are not of this fold. This is the friend of whom I spoke. He who had no mercy upon others, is now reduced to a condition which may excite the pity of his most implacable enemy. At sea, everything that breaks the monotony of the surrounding expanse, attracts attention. That life is long which answers life's great end. He is the friend whose arrival is daily expected. The board of health have published their report. The committee, who were divided in opinion, will discuss the question more fully at their next meeting. It is the undaunted bravery, and the wild impetuosity of the Zouaves, that render their charges so formidable. All this took place when the vice and ignorance which the old tyranny had generated, threatened the new freedom with destruction. One or the other must relinquish his claim. Either Jane or Julia will perform her task.

MODEL I. "Hastings advanced to the bar and bent his knee."
—*Macaulay*.

This declarative sentence is a partial compound. "Hastings" is the subject, and needs no limitation to point out the individual; "advanced to the bar and bent his knee," is the compound predicate. Changed to a complete compound, it would be, "Hastings advanced to the bar and he bent his knee." The component parts are joined by the simple coördinate conjunction *and*, which unites the parts without emphasis. The first component part is "advanced to the bar;" "advanced" is limited by the phrase "to the bar," an adverbial element of *place*, of the second class, used to show to what place he advanced. The second component part is "bent his knee;" "bent" is limited by "his knee," a complex objective element, first class, of which "knee" is the principal element, and is limited by "his," an adjective element used to show whose knee was bent.

His is a personal pronoun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, according to Rule III. (Repeat it); of the possessive case, limiting "knee." Rule VII.

MODEL II.

"Thus urged the chief; a generous *troop* appears,
Who spread *their* bucklers, and advance *their* spears."—*Pope*.*

Let the learner analyze this compound sentence, and parse *their* as in the preceding model, giving as a rule (201, 1, a.).

Who is a relative pronoun; as a pronoun it has *troop* for its antecede-

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dent, a collective noun in the singular denoting plurality, and is of the third person, plural number, masculine gender by (201, 1, a.) and in the nominative case by Rule I. Observe that *troop* first denotes *unity*, since *appears* is singular; and then it denotes *plurality*, as shown by *who* and *their*.

MODEL III. "I wish, after all I have said about *wit* and *humor*, I could satisfy myself of *their* good effects upon the character and disposition."—*Sidney Smith*.

This is a complex declarative sentence, of which *I* is the subject and *wish* the predicate of the principal clause. Let the learner point out all the modifications of the predicate, and parse the pronouns.

"*Their*" is a personal pronoun, of the third person, plural number, neuter gender, and agrees with its antecedent "*wit and humor*," whose coördinate terms are taken conjointly by (201, 1, b., or Rule XII.) and is in the possessive case by Rule VII.

2. Construct, analyze, and parse examples of your own, containing the different pronouns in their several constructions.

3. Correct by (201, 1, a. b.) and the several Cautions, the following examples, and avoid all similar errors yourself:—

The committee were unanimous in its action. The army was badly cut up, but made good their retreat. Let every chair, every book, and every slate be put in their places. Peace and happiness are by no means granted to the rich alone; yet it is supposed by many to depend upon wealth. The president or secretary will favor us with their presence. Many words—they darken speech. That girl—she is very ignorant. The king—he is very angry. The teacher approving the plan, he immediately adopted it. Whom when they had washed, they laid her in an upper chamber. What he said, he is now sorry for it. Let each scholar who thinks so raise their hands. A person can content themselves on small means. Let every one answer for themselves. Rebecca took goodly raiment, and put them upon Jacob. Can any one be sure that they are not deceived? Thou hast no right to be a judge, who art a party concerned. A hawk caught a hen, and eat her in her own nest. A purse was lost in the street, which contained a large sum of money. There are millions of people in the empire of China whose support is derived almost entirely from rice. I and you may go, if I and he can agree. I, and you, and Harriet are going. Father said, that I and Henry should stay at home. Horace, and I, and you are invited. There was a certain householder which planted a vineyard. He has a soul who cannot be influenced by such motives. This is the dog whom my father bought. The lady which we saw was highly educated. He has

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some friends which I am acquainted with. The judge which pronounced the sentence was an upright man. Those which desire to be happy should be careful to do that which is right. Though thou art wise, you sometimes misjudge. Do thyself no harm, and no one will harm you. This is the man who discovered our distress, and that brought us relief. I know you, whom thou art that annoyest me at thy gate. O thou who art all-wise, and that rulest over all! I labored long to make thee happy, and now you reward me by ingratitude. Let no boy or girl drop her pencil. James and you must attend to his studies.

204. The Verb as Predicate.

1. RULE IV. The *verb* must agree with its subject in person and number; as, "*I am*;" "*Thou art sitting*;" "*We have come*."

(a.) A verb agreeing with a collective noun in the singular is put in the singular, when the noun denotes *unity*, but in the plural when it denotes *plurality*; as, "*A detachment of two thousand men was sent to support the left wing*;" "*The council were divided in their opinion*."

(b.) A verb agreeing with a subject consisting of coördinate terms, is singular or plural according to Rule XII. (See also 220, 1, a. b. c.)

2. To the general rule that the verb must agree in number and person with any subject, according as it denotes *unity* or *plurality* of idea, there are properly no exceptions. In the following examples, "*Ten head of cattle were feeding*;" "*Five yoke of oxen were ploughing*;" "*Fifty sail of vessels were seen*,"—the rule (202, 1, a.) is properly applicable. So in case of the apparent exception, in which the title of a book is plural, the mind is fixed upon the *treatise* itself as *one thing*; thus, "*Wayland's Elements of Political Economy was published in 1837*." Here, "*Elements of Political Economy*," is the same as "*Treatise upon the Elements, &c.*" So, again, a *phrase* or *clause* (198, 1, a.) used as a subject, is to be regarded as *one thing*, requiring the verb to be in the third person singular. But when a phrase expressive of a combination of numbers is regarded as denoting separate units, rather than a single number, the verb should be plural; as, "*Three times three are nine*."

3. The nominative and verb after *many a* (*an*) should be in the singular number; as, "*Full many a flower is born to blush unseen*."

4. The subject of verbs in the imperative mode is *thou*, or *ye* or *you*, and is usually omitted; as, "*Come [ye]*." "*Go [thou]*." The subject is often to be supplied after comparisons with *than* or *as*; as, "*John has more fruit than [what = that which] can be gathered in a week*;" "*It is as broad as [it is] long*."

5. In such inverted interrogative sentences as *Who am I? Who is he? Who are you? What am I? Who art thou? Is it I? Is it he? Is it thou? care should*

The agreement of the verb,—with a collective noun—with coördinate terms. Apparent exceptions. *Many a*. Subject omitted. Subject and attribute in inverted interrogative sentences.

be taken to distinguish the attribute from the subject, which alone controls the person and number of the verb.

CAUTION I. *Avoid all such ungrammatical expressions as, "Says I;" "Thinks I;" "Thinks says I;" "I hears him," &c.*

CAUTION II. *Never use a plural verb with a singular subject, though the latter be modified by a noun in the plural. Say, "Each of his brothers is (not are) well."*

CAUTION III. *Be careful not to use the WRONG VERB, as, set for sit, lay for lie, come for go; or the WRONG FORM, as, done for did, wrote for written, &c.; or the WRONG TENSE, as, see for saw, give for gave; or IMPROPER CONTRACTIONS, as, ain't for are not, &c.*

205. Exercise.

1. *Analyze and parse the following examples:—*

The Connecticut river was first explored, as far as Hartford, by Adrian Block. The sun was setting upon one of the rich, glassy glades of the forest. Those who have ever witnessed the spectacle of the launching of a ship of the line, will perhaps forgive me for adding this to the examples of the sublime objects of artificial life. Ferdinand and Isabella were seated, with their son, Prince John, under a superb canopy. The nobility were haughty and exacting. The people take the matter into their own hands. Society is not always answerable for the conduct of its members.

MODEL I. "After a brief interval, the sovereigns requested of Columbus a recital of his adventures."—*Prescott.*

This simple declarative sentence has "sovereigns" for its grammatical subject, and "requested" for its grammatical predicate. "Sovereigns," the subject, is limited by "the;" "requested," the predicate, is limited, first, by the direct object, "a recital of his adventures," and secondly, by the indirect object, "of Columbus." It is further limited by the adverbial element, "after a brief interval."

"Requested" is a regular transitive verb; *principal parts* (pres. request, past, requested, past participle, requested) *indicative mode, past tense, third person, plural number*, to agree with "sovereigns," according to Rule IV. (Repeat it.)

MODEL II. "Why do the heathen rage, and the people imagine a vain thing?"—*Bible.*

This is a compound interrogative sentence, consisting of two coördinate clauses joined by "and." Analyze them separately.

"Do rage" is a regular intransitive verb, emphatic form, indicative

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mode, present tense, third person, plural number, to agree with "heathen," according to Rule IV., *a*. In the same way parse "do imagine."

MODEL III. "Gold, silver, and copper abound in South America."

This is a partial compound sentence. The compound subject is "Gold, silver, and copper." The component parts are taken conjointly; the simple predicate is "abound," and is limited by "in South America," an adverbial element of the second class.

"Abound" is a regular intransitive verb, indicative mode, present tense, third person, plural number, to agree with its compound subject, according to Rule IV., *b*., or Rule XII.

2 *Construct similar examples of your own.*

3. *Correct by (204, 1, a. b.) and the Cautions, the following examples, and be careful to avoid all similar errors:—*

Where was you this morning when I called? He dare you to do it. They was unwilling to go. Relatives agrees with their antecedents. There's ten of us going. Was you certain of it? We was allowed the privilege. Circumstances alters cases. Has those books been sent home? The committee has accepted their appointment. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure which they at first opposed. Blessed is the people that know the joyful sound. The fleet were seen sailing up the channel, where afterwards it anchored. The peasantry goes barefoot without endangering their health. The public is requested to attend for their own benefit. The church have no power to adopt the measure which it advocates. Thinks I to myself, I'll do it. Yes, says I, we'll go together. O, dear me, says I, (as vulgarly contracted, "O, dear me, *suz*.") The derivation of these words are uncertain. The story, with all its additions, were believed. The increase of his resources render the change necessary. The number of applicants increase. The general, with all his soldiers, were taken. The sale of the goods take place to-morrow. The hope of retrieving his losses increase his diligence. I seen him when he done it. Some one has broke my pencil. Tell them to set still. She laid down by the fire. He soon begun to be weary of the employment. I am going to lay down. Mary has wrote a letter. I see him when he went. Ain't it true? We ain't going this evening. He has drank too much. The tree has fell. You have not did as I told you. John has stole the knife. They are going to our house next week. He give me a great many books. He knowed his lesson better than Henry. They had sang very well. I have lain your book on the shelf. Will you sit the pitcher on the table, and let it set there? The ship lays in the harbor. I done my sums first.

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206. The Adjective as Modifier and as Predicate.

RULE V. An adjective or participle must belong to some noun or pronoun; as, "*The guilty man*;" "*The man was guilty*."

(a.) An adjective or participle used as the *attribute* of a proposition, belongs to the subject; as, "*The tree is tall*." "*To see the sun is pleasant*." "*Where the funds will be obtained is doubtful*."

(b.) An adjective or participle used to *modify* a noun, belongs to the noun which it modifies; as, "*An upright judge*." "*Five boxes*." "*The good old man*."

(c.) Adjectives denoting *number*, agree in number with the nouns they limit; as, "*This book*;" "*These trees*;" "*Ten men*."

(d.) The limiting adjective (article) *a* or *an*, belongs to nouns in the singular number, except before *few*, *hundred*, or *thousand*; and *the* to nouns either singular or plural; as, "*a man*," "*an hour*;" "*the desk*," "*the pens*," "*a few men*."

2. The appropriate use of the adjective is to restrict the application of a noun used as a *common* name applicable to each individual of a class. The adjective thus used is always a dependent term, having the restricted noun as its principal.

3. A noun may be restricted or limited in its application,—

(1.) Without affecting any of its properties; as, "*Two men*." "*These books*."

(2.) By designating some *property* or *quality*; as, "*Good men*." "*Industrious boys*."

(3.) By *identifying* it; as, "*Paul the Apostle*." "*Peter the Hermit*."

(4.) By representing it as an object *possessed*; as, "*David's harp*."

The first two limitations are effected by *adjectives*; the last two by *nouns* or *pronouns* performing the office of the adjective.

4. Any word, or group of words, employed to limit a noun, is an *adjective element*, that is, it is of the nature of an adjective; as, "*Industrious men*." "*Men of industry*." "*Men who are industrious*."

5. Limiting adjectives, when used in connection with qualifying, are generally placed first; as, "*The old man*." "*This valuable hint*." "*Ten small trees*." When two limiting adjectives are used, one of which is an article, the latter is usually placed first; as, "*The ten commandments*." But after *many*, *such*, *all*, *what*, and *both*, the article stands next to the noun; so, also, after adjectives preceded by *too*, *so*, *as*, or *how*; as, "*Many a man*." "*Such a man*." "*All the boys*." "*What a boy*." "*Both the girls*." "*Too great, as great, so great, how great, a man*."

6. When two or more qualifying adjectives are joined to a noun to express different qualities of *one* object, the limiting adjective should not be repeated; as, "*A red and white flag*;" i. e., one flag having two colors. But when two or more such adjectives belong to a noun used to represent as many different

An adjective as an attribute, as a modifier. Adjectives denoting number. The articles *a* and *the*. Use of the adjective to limit a common noun. Different ways of limiting. Adjective element. Two adjectives.

objects as there are adjectives employed, the limiting adjective must be repeated; as, "We saw a black, a white, a red, and a gray horse;" i. e., four horses of different colors. So, when two objects have the same name, but are described by adjectives which cannot unite to modify either, the article should be repeated when the noun is in the singular number, but used only once when it is in the plural; as, "*The first, the second, and the third regiment,*" or, "*the first, second, and third regiments.*" "Neither the *Old* nor the *New Testament.*" Not,—"*Neither the Old nor New Testament.*"

7. *Many*, followed by a (*an*), though implying *plurality*, is followed by a noun in the singular; as, "*Many a man*" = *Many men*.

8. When two numerals precede a noun, one singular and the other plural, the plural should generally be placed next to the noun; as, "*The first two lines,*" not, "*The two first lines.*" In such expressions as, "*Five yoke of oxen,*" "*Ten head of cattle,*" "*Fifty sail of vessels,*" the plural adjective belongs to a noun in the singular, but used collectively to convey the idea of plurality.

9. When objects are contrasted, *that* refers to the first, and *this* to the last mentioned; as, "*Wealth and poverty are both temptations; that tends to excite pride, this discontent.*"

10. By a peculiar use, *the—the*, primarily articles, belonging to some noun understood, as *part*, are used with comparatives, to denote proportionate equality, and are to be regarded as conjunctive adverbs used to join two clauses; as, "*The more I see it, the better I like it.*"

11. The adjective is often used as a noun, the noun to which it belongs being understood; as, "*The good are respected.*" On the other hand, the noun is often used as an adjective; as, "*Gold beads.*"

12. One adjective often limits the complex idea expressed by another adjective and a noun; as, "*Two old horses.*" So, again, in combined numbers, and in some few other cases, one adjective limits another; as, "*Five hundred thousand;*" "*A bright red apple.*"

13. The predicate adjective following *copulative verbs*, generally denotes some property of the subject, either already possessed by it, or acquired through the action of the verb; as, "*The boy was made sick.*" "*The bread was baked brown.*" "*The fruit tastes sweet.*"

14. A participle belonging to the subject is often used somewhat adverbially to express an accompanying action. Although it does not show the manner of the action, it shows *how*, or *with what* it is accompanied; as, "*The Son of Man came eating and drinking.*" See (249, 5).

15. When two objects, or sets of objects, are compared, the comparative degree is generally used; as, "*George is taller than William, or is the taller of the two.*" "*Our oranges are sweeter than yours.*"

16. When more than two objects are compared, the superlative degree is used; as, "*Achilles was the bravest of the Greeks.*"

17. When the comparative degree is used, the latter term should always

Two numerals. *This* and *that*. *The—the*. Adjective used as a noun. An adjective joined to an adjective. The predicate adjective after copulative verbs. Use of comparatives and superlatives.

exclude the former ; as, "New York is larger than any other city of the United States." "He was wiser than his brothers." But when the superlative is used, the latter term should always *include* the former ; as, "Rhode Island is the smallest of the United States."

18. *Each, one, either, and neither* belong to nouns in the third person singular. Hence, when used as nouns, verbs and pronouns should agree with them accordingly ; as, "Each of his brothers is (not *are*) well." *Either* and *neither* have reference to *two* things only ; *each, every, and any*, to *more than two*. *All* refers to the individuals of a whole taken collectively ; while *each, every, and any* refer to them when taken distributively. The following sentence is wrong, because the individuals should be taken collectively ; "Every term in the series is alike,"—Say, "*All the terms are alike.*"

19. An adjective after the participle or infinitive of the copula is sometimes used *abstractly*, referring, it may be, logically (but not grammatically) to some indefinite object ; as, "To be good is to be happy."

20. An adjective may belong to an adverb, to a phrase, or a clause used as a noun ; as, "*This once.*" Here "*once*" is equivalent to "*one time.*" "To deceive is *criminal.*" "That youth and vigor must pass away is *undeniable.*"

21. The reciprocal *each other*, should be applied to *two* objects ; *one another* to *more than two* ; as, "Righteousness and peace have kissed *each other*,"—not, "*one another.*" "These various tribes have been at war with *one another.*"

CAUTION I. *Never use A before the sound of a vowel, nor AN before the sound of a consonant.* Say, *An apple*, not *a apple*.

CAUTION II. *Avoid the use of a plural adjective to limit a singular noun.* Say, *This sort of people*, not *those sort*.

CAUTION III. *Avoid the vulgar use of THEM for THOSE, and THIS HERE or THAT 'ERE, for THIS or THAT.* Say, *Those books*, not *them books*—*this chair*, not *this 'ere chair*.

CAUTION IV. *Avoid the use of the adjective for the adverb.* Say, *Speak promptly*, not *prompt*.

CAUTION V. *Avoid the use of the superlative degree when two objects are compared, or the comparative when more than two are compared.* Say, *The wiser of the two*,—not *the wisest of the two*.

CAUTION VI. *Avoid the use of double comparatives and superlatives.* Say, *This is the unkindest cut of all*,—not *the most unkindest cut of all*

CAUTION VII. *Avoid the use of the article before a title or name used merely as a word.* Say, *He is called captain*, not *the captain*.

CAUTION VIII. *Avoid the use of the article before the second noun, when the same object is compared in two different capacities.* Say, *He is a better teacher than poet*, not, *than a poet*.

Each, every, &c. Adjectives used abstractly. Adjectives belong to adverbs. *Each other* and *one another*. Cautions.

207. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the following examples and parse the adjectives:—*

The yellow sun-flower by the brook, in autumn beauty stood. Life is real, life is earnest. The influence of such pursuits is ennobling. He was a good man, and a just. He was a burning and a shining light. These opportunities, improved as they should be, must produce the desired results. The hopes of the whole family were centred on him. His resources were inexhaustible. To insult the afflicted is impious. Pity the sorrows of a poor old man, whose trembling limbs have borne him to your door. That he should refuse such a proposition, was not unexpected. Every thing which is false, vicious, or unworthy, is despicable to him, though all the world should approve it.

MODEL. "The sky was clear, and the immense vault of the heavens appeared in awful majesty and grandeur."—*Brydone*.

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two coördinate parts; the first, "The sky was clear;" the second, "the immense vault, &c.," to the end.

The first part is a simple sentence, having "sky" for its subject, and "was clear" for its predicate; the subject is limited by "the," a simple adjective element of the first class.

The second part is a partial compound, and is joined to the first by the coördinate conjunction "and." The simple subject is "vault," limited by "the," "immense," and "of the heavens;" the first two, simple adjective elements of the first class,—the second, a complex objective element of the second class.

The simple predicate is "appeared," and is limited by the phrase "in awful majesty and grandeur;" this is a compound adverbial element of the second class, or, what is the same, an element with a compound object, limited by the simple adjective element "awful;" "in" is the connective, and "majesty and grandeur" the compound object.

"*The*" is a limiting adjective (definite article), and belongs to "sky," according to Rule V., or Rule V., 1, *d*.

"*Clear*" is a qualifying adjective, and is used as the *attribute* of the proposition, and belongs to the subject "sky," according to Rule V., 1, *a*.

"*Immense*" is a qualifying adjective, and is used to *modify* "vault," to which it belongs, according to Rule V., 1, *b*.

2. *Construct examples of your own to illustrate the various uses of the adjective.*

3. *Correct the following examples by the Cautions:—*

He found a acorn in the woods. He was a honorable man. It is an

Model.

wonderful invention. He is an younger man than we thought. She showed an uniform adherence to truth. This is an hard saying.

I do not like remarks of these kind. Those sort of people are very disagreeable. Will you buy six pair of boots? I have bought eight foot of wood. It cost a thousand pound. The lot is fifty foot in width. The water is six fathom deep. We walked three mile in a short time. He ordered ten ton of coal.

I found them books on the table. Which of them scholars recites the best? Go and tell them boys to come here. Ask them children to bring them apples here.

She dresses neat. The time passed very quick. The ship glides smooth over the water. The stream flows silent on. It is not such a great distance as I thought it was. He behaved much wiser than the others. Mary speaks French very fluent. I am exceeding sorry to hear such tidings.

He was the larger of them all. He was the oldest of the two brothers. He preferred the latter of the three. Which is the oldest of the two? John is the wisest of the two.

After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a pharisee. This was the most unkindest cut of all. The rose is most fairest of all flowers. The chief of the Arabian tribes is styled the sheik. The chief magistrate is called the emperor. He was an abler financier than a negotiator.

208. The Noun or Pronoun in Apposition.

1. RULE VI. A noun or pronoun used to *explain* or *identify* another noun or pronoun is put by apposition in the same case; as, "William the *Conqueror* defeated Harold, the Saxon *king*."

2. The explanatory noun or pronoun must denote the *same* person or thing as that which it identifies. It usually explains by showing the *office, rank, capacity, occupation, or character* of the principal term; as, "Peter the *Hermit*." "John the *Evangelist*."

3. This construction may be regarded as derived from an adjective clause by abridging it; as, "Paul, *who was the apostle to the Gentiles*" = Paul, the *apostle to the Gentiles*. Hence, like the full clause, it may be *restrictive*, in which case it points out the individual; as, "William, the *Conqueror*;" or, it may be *explanatory* (202, 13); that is, it resumes the idea expressed by the principal noun for the purpose of *amplification, rhetorical effect, or even argument*; as, "Moses, the *servant of the Lord*, died there in the land of Moab." Here, "servant" is not used to distinguish this Moses from some other, but to show the writer's idea of his exalted character as the servant of

Nouns in apposition, denote *office, &c.* Restrictive or explanatory.

the Lord. Mark, also, the following examples,—“The Lord, *the most high God*, the possessor of heaven and earth;” “You have ruined him, *your protector, your best friend*,” that is, notwithstanding he is *your protector* and *your best friend*.

4. It is an error to suppose that a noun or pronoun is in apposition with another noun or pronoun, because the construction requires them to be put in the same case. The predicate noun is not in apposition with the subject noun, though it is required to be in the same case; in one case we *affirm* what in the other we *assume* (163, 7). The second, or attributive object, after the active voice of copulative verbs, is not in apposition with the first, though in the same case. (See 212, 9.)

5. Three cases of apposition may be distinguished,—

(a.) The noun in apposition, though subordinate to the principal, is made *prominent*, and receives the emphasis; as, “Peter the *Hermit*.” In this case it is always placed last.

(b.) The noun, when put in apposition with a personal pronoun, though placed last, is so nearly equal in value with the latter, as to render it sometimes doubtful which should be regarded as principal; as, “*Ye men* of Athens.”

(c.) When used as a title, or part of a name, the noun in apposition loses the emphasis, is placed first, and may be taken with the principal noun, as one complex name (44, 5); as, “*General Scott*,” “*Washington Irving*.” Some have supposed the leading noun here to be used adjectively. But when a noun is used wholly as an adjective, it denotes a *different* thing from that which it limits; as, “A *silver* cup.”

6. When, for the sake of emphasis, the *same* name is repeated, it is in apposition with the former; as, “A *horse!* a *horse!* my kingdom for a horse.”

7. When the limiting noun denotes a person, it generally, though not always, agrees with the limited, in *number, gender, and case*; as, “Paul the *Apostle*.” “The *Franks*, a *people* of Germany.”

8. The noun in apposition is rendered more emphatic when joined by such connectives as *namely, as, to wit, that is*; as, “Two *men, namely, George and James*.” “So that *he, as God*, sitteth in the temple of God.”

9. A noun or pronoun in the plural may be represented, not by one, but by two or more nouns, which, together, are equivalent to it; as, “The victims a *brother* and a *sister*.” The reverse of this rule is equally true; as, “Intemperance, oppression, and fraud, *vices* of the age.” In the case of the expressions, *each other* and *one another*, the first words, *each* and *one*, are in apposition with a preceding plural noun or pronoun, or with two or more singular nouns taken conjointly; as, “The boys struck one another” = The boys struck—one struck another; “John and David love each other” = John and David love—each loves the other. *Each* and *one* are in the nominative case, and *other* is in the objective case. It is better, in some cases, to consider the combination as an inseparable term; as, “He did not recommend the washing of *one another's* feet.”

10. The proper name of a *place*, instead of being put in apposition with

Nouns in the same case not always in apposition. Three cases. Nouns repeated. Nouns denoting persons agree in number, gender, and case. Use of *namely, as, &c. Each other, &c.* A proper and a common name.

the common name, is usually governed by the preposition *of*; as, "The city of Rome."

11. A noun is sometimes in apposition with a sentence, and sometimes a sentence with a noun; as, "They devoted their whole time to the promotion of our happiness—*attentions* which we shall not soon forget." "The maxim, *Enough is as good as a feast*, has silenced many a vain wish."

12. When possessives are in apposition, the sign of possession (*'s*) is commonly used with only one of them, and that one which immediately precedes the limited noun; as, "John the Baptist's head." "His majesty King Henry's crown." "For Herodias' sake, his brother Philip's wife." "At Smith's, the bookseller."

13. Sometimes a noun, preceded by "as," without the sign, and evidently without the signification of the possessive, refers logically to a noun or pronoun in the possessive; as, "What do you think of my brother's success as a teacher?" "As an author, his 'Adventurer' is *his* capital work." Rather than to consider *teacher* and *author* in the possessive case here, it is better to suppose *teacher* to refer in sense to *brother's*, but to take its case from *success*; and *author* to refer logically to *his*, but grammatically to *work*.

209. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following examples, and parse the nouns or pronouns in apposition:—

The patriarch Abraham was accounted faithful. The Emperor Nero was a cruel tyrant. James, the royal Scottish poet, was imprisoned in Windsor Castle. In the fifth century, the Franks, a people of Germany, invaded France. Frederic William III., King of Prussia, son of Frederic William II., and Louisa, Princess of Hesse-Darmstadt, was born August 8, 1770.

MODEL. "Daniel Boone, the pioneer of Kentucky, was born in Bucks county, Pennsylvania, in the month of February, 1735."
—*Sparks*.

Analyze this sentence, and parse the subject, predicate, and all the connectives.

Pioneer is a common noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, nominative case, and is used to identify "Daniel Boone," with which it is put in apposition, by Rule VI. (Repeat it.)

2. Construct similar examples of your own to illustrate apposition.

3. Correct, by the rule, the following examples:—

I am going to see my friends in the country, they that we visited last summer. Washington will be remembered by our posterity as him who was the father of his country. The echo-song was sung by Jenny Lind, she who delighted the whole country.

A noun in apposition with a sentence. Possessives in apposition.

210. Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive.

1. RULE VII. A noun or pronoun used to limit the application of another noun, by denoting *possession*, is put in the possessive case; as, "*Stephen's* courage failed;" "*Their* fortune was ample;" "*Whose* work is this?"

2. The principal idea expressed by this relation is that of *possession*; yet, this term should not be understood to mean simply *property*. The possessive case is employed to denote,—

(a.) *Property*; as, "The *farmer's* house."

(b.) *Source or origin*; as, "*Heaven's* command;" "The *sun's* rays."

(c.) *Agency*; as, "*Solomon's* temple," i. e., the temple built by Solomon.

(d.) *Adaptation or fitness*; as, "*Men's* hats."

(e.) *Kindred*; as, "*Brother's* son."

(f.) *Time, weight, and measure*; as, "The *ten years'* war;" "A *pound's* weight;" "A *mile's* length."

3. The possessive case is used to limit the noun, when we wish to express some agency emanating usually from a person, or some object treated as a person. It performs the office of the adjective, and is hence reckoned an adjective element.

4. The relation of the possessive is one of dependence. There must, therefore, be some noun for it to limit. This noun, however, may be understood; as, "He worships at *St. Paul's* [church]."

5. The present active participle, the present passive (with *being*), and the perfect participles (but never the past, or simple passive), when used as nouns, may be limited by the possessive, and at the same time may have the limitation which they have when they are complete predicates; as, "I heard of *your studying* Latin;" "I am in favor of *their bringing* the dispute to a speedy close."

6. Instead of the possessive form, the preposition *of*, with the objective, is often used; as, "The court *of the king*" = The *king's* court.

7. The possessive case may be either assumed or predicated; as, "*David's* book;" "This book is *David's*."

8. An adjective sometimes, though seldom, intervenes between the possessive and the noun on which it depends; as, "Of man's *first* disobedience;" and when, in such case, the noun is understood, the possessive sign is annexed to the adjective used as a noun; as, "This is the wretched's only plea."

9. All possessive constructions may be divided into *simple*, *complex*, and *compound*. The construction of *simple* possessives is sufficiently explained by Rule VIII.

Possessives, what they denote. The possessive, an adjective element. Limited noun understood. Possessives may limit participles. Assumed or predicated. Adjectives intervene.

10. A possessive is *complex*, when a group of words, consisting of a principal and a subordinate term, is put into the possessive. Of this there are two cases,—

(a.) The subordinate noun may be in the objective after a preposition; as, "The duke of Wellington's sword." Here, the possessive sign is applied to an inseparable group. Although "duke" alone is in the possessive, it would not be improper to regard the whole group as a noun in the possessive, limiting "sword." When possession in a similar case is predicated (7 above), the sign is applied to the simple possessive noun; as, "There shall nothing die of all that is the *children's* of Israel."—*Exodus ix.*, 4.

(b.) The subordinate noun may be put in apposition with the principal noun. Here are two cases: (1.) When the subordinate noun unites with the other, forming a complex name (208, 5, c.). In this case, the sign of possession is applied to the last only, or that nearest the limited noun; as, "*General George Washington's* farewell address;" (2.) When the subordinate noun is properly in apposition with a possessive noun; as, "For thy *servant David's* sake;" "At *Smith's*, the bookseller." Here, the rule is to give the possessive sign to the one immediately preceding the governing noun, whether it be the first possessive, as in the second example, or the second, as in the first example.

11. A possessive is *compound*, when the terms composing it are coördinate; and here, also, are two cases,—

(a.) The coördinate terms may individually limit a noun denoting one common object; as, "*Gould, Kendall, and Lincoln's* store;" or,

(b.) They may limit the same noun applied to different objects; as, "*Richardson's, Worcester's and Webster's* Dictionary," that is, *three* dictionaries. In this case, each noun has the sign, because dictionary is understood immediately after it. But, in the other case, the group has the sign, which is, by a general rule, applied to the noun nearest to the governing word.

12. There are two other constructions which are thought by some to come under the case of complex possessives: the one is the case of the predicate noun in an abridged proposition, whose subject has been changed to the possessive; the other is that mentioned in (208, 13). For these cases, see (200, b., and 208, 13).

13. Sometimes, a possessive and the limited noun unite and form a compound, which may be taken

(a.) *Literally*, and should be written without the possessive sign; as, *tradesman, craftsman, ratsbane, doomsday*; or,

(b.) *Metaphorically*, in which case they should be written with the sign; as, *Job's-tears, Jew's-ear, bear's-foot, hound's-tongue, bear's-breech, lion's-tail, wolf's-bane, wolf's-peach*, names of plants.

When a compound, consisting of a possessive and its governing noun, is used as an adjective, the sign should not be omitted; as, "*A bird's-eye view*;" "*A camel's-hair shawl*."

Possessive constructions, simple, complex, compound. The possessive and limited noun form a compound.

CAUTION I. *In writing nouns in the possessive, never omit the possessive termination. Write man's, not mans.*

CAUTION II. *In using pronouns in the possessive, never insert the apostrophe in writing, nor add the letter n in speaking. Write theirs, not their's. Say, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs, not him, hern, ourn, yourn, theirs.*

CAUTION III. *Never make the limited noun plural because the possessive is plural. Say "Their decision," not, "Their decisions," one only being meant.*

211. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the following examples, and parse the possessives:—*

Charles's resignation filled all Europe with astonishment. The joy of his youth was great. Rotha's bay received the ship. Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace. A mother's tenderness, and a father's care, are nature's gifts for man's advantage. A chieftain's daughter seemed the maid. Yet my last thought is England's. She stooped her by the runnel's side. Hushed were his Gertrude's lips. Our harps we left by Babel's streams.

MODEL "What, I say, was Cæsar's object?"—*Knowles.*

This is a complex sentence, consisting of a principal clause, "I say," and a subordinate interrogative clause, "What was Cæsar's object?" It is quoted directly (170, 1), and hence the interrogation point is used at the close (170, 6).

"I," is the subject of the principal clause, and "say," the grammatical predicate; it is limited by the quoted clause, which is subordinate in construction, and is an objective element of the third class. It has no connective (160, 5); its simple subject is "object," and is limited by the adjective element "Cæsar's;" the predicate is "was what," of which "was" is the copula, and "what" the attribute.

"Cæsar's" is a proper noun, of the third person, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case, and is used to limit "object," by denoting possession. Rule VII. (Repeat it.)

2. *Construct similar examples of your own.*

3. *Correct any errors of your own, either in speaking or writing the possessive.*

4. *Correct the following examples by the Cautions:—*

On Lindens hills of blood-stained snow. It was the grand sultans palace. The nations hopes were blasted. Next Mars, Piazzis orb is seen. It is against the laws of Plutos empire. His brothers offence is

Cautions. Model.

not his. Midst glories glance, and victories thunder-shout. The mans story was false. If, of Drydens fire the blaze is brighter, of Popes the heat is more regular and constant.

This book is your's. I listened to it's song. The slate is hisn. This map is theirn. This knife is mine, and not yourn. That handkerchief is hern. These sheep are ourn Will you drive yourn out of the pasture? Our's is a pleasant task

I will do it for your sakes. We intend, for our parts, to follow his advice. Their healths have improved. We will submit to our lots. It was not worth their whiles to remain so long in port.

212. The Object.

1. **RULE VIII.** A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a transitive verb, or its participles, must be in the objective case; as, "He found the *object* which he desired."

(a.) *Copulative* verbs (9 below), in the active voice, take a *direct* object and predicate of it an *attributive* object, both of which form a double object; as, "They called *him* John." In the passive voice, the direct object becomes the subject, and the attributive becomes the attribute; as, "*He* was called John."

(b.) Certain verbs, as *give, ask, teach*, and others (12 below), in the active voice, take two objects, one *direct*, and the other *indirect*, as, "He gave *me* a book." In the passive, the direct object should become the subject, and the indirect should remain in the predicate; as, "A book was given to *me*."

2. When a noun or pronoun is used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb, without the aid of a preposition expressed or understood, it is called the *direct object*; but when it is added to a verb, either transitive or intransitive, to show that *to* or *for* which anything is, or is done, or that *from* which anything proceeds, it is called the *indirect object*; as, "Ellen gave an apple to her brother."

3. When an indirect object precedes the direct, the preposition should be omitted; when it follows, it should be expressed; as, "I lent *him* a book" — I lent a book to him.

4. The indirect object is sometimes used alone with intransitive verbs, sometimes with an adjective, and in a few instances with a noun; as, "He spoke of his *trials*." "To *me* this rule is obvious." "To the *hero* that was a proud day."

5. The object of a transitive verb may be an infinitive, or a substantive clause; as, "I love to write." "I have heard that *he was sick*."

The object—after copulative verbs—after *give, ask, &c.* Direct and indirect object. The infinitive as object.

6. Some intransitive verbs are followed by an object of kindred signification; as, "He ran a race." "She dreamed a dream."

7. The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive; as, "Romulus founded Rome" = *Rome was founded by Romulus.*

8. To avoid ambiguity, the object should be placed after the verb, especially when the subject and object are both nouns; as, "Alexander conquered *Darius*," not "Alexander *Darius* conquered;" but when the subject or object is a pronoun, the form usually determines the relation; as, "*Him* followed his next mate."

9. The following copulative verbs, *make, appoint, elect, create, constitute, render, name, style, call, esteem, think, consider, regard, reckon*, and some others, not only take after them a direct object, but predicate of it another object, which may, therefore, be called its *attributive*. The attributive object may be either a *noun*, an *adjective*, or a *verb*. "They made *him* an *officer*." "They made *him* *sick*." "They made *him* *labor*." Though it is evident that the attributive object, when a noun, denotes the same person or thing as the first, it is by no means in apposition with it. In the case of apposition, the principal noun completes the meaning of the verb, and the second limits the first; as, "They called *Miles*, the *carpenter*." But in the case of two objects (the object and its attribute), both are necessary to complete the meaning of the verb; as, "They called *Miles* a *carpenter*." In one case, the second noun has no grammatical relation to the verb; in the other, it is directly related, both to the verb and to the first noun. In the first example, "*carpenter*" should be parsed as a noun in the objective, put in apposition with the first, by Rule VI. In the second example, "*carpenter*" should be parsed as a noun in the objective, forming, in connection with "*Miles*," the object o. "*called*," being also an *attribute* to the first object. In a similar way, parse "*sick*," and "*labor*," in the above examples; or, one may be called the *first*, or *principal*, and the other the *attributive* object of the verb.

10. This construction, in many instances, may be traced to an abridged proposition, in which the infinitive has been dropped; as, "They considered *him* a *poet*," that is, *to be a poet*. In fact, the infinitive of the copula is often expressed, the first object representing, in the objective, what was the subject nominative; the second, in like manner, what was the predicate nominative before the proposition was abridged; as, "I knew that *he* was a *scholar*." "I knew *him* to be a *scholar*." In such cases, the infinitive and second noun form the attributive object of the verb, the second noun being in the objective after "*to be*." Some verbs, as *say, announce, hope*, and others, take only the full form of the proposition; others, as *believe, know, think*, and many others, admit either the full or abridged form; while others, as *compel, constrain*, and others, take only the abridged form; as, "I *say* that he did it,"—never, *him to do it*; "I *believe* that he is honest" = *him to be honest*; "They *compelled him to go*,"—never, *that he should go*.

11. An *infinitive* may be the second or attributive object; the first object being its subject, and the two together forming a kind of abridged proposition;

Object of kindred signification. Position of the object. Object after copulative verbs. Principal and attributive object. Double object derived from an abridged proposition.

as, "They ordered *the soldiers to march.*" "They ordered *that the soldiers should march.*" (182, 8.)

12. The following verbs, *buy, sell, play, sing, get, lend, draw, send, make, pass, write, pour, give, teach, leave, bring, tell, do, present, throw, carry, ask, show, order, promise, refuse, deny, provide*, and some others, take after them, besides a direct object, an indirect object, showing to or from what the action tends; as, "Give me a book."

13. When any of the above verbs assume the passive form, the direct object generally (though not always) becomes the subject; as, "A book was given me." The indirect object sometimes, however, becomes the subject; as, "He was asked his opinion." "I was taught grammar." *Opinion* and *grammar* are in the objective case after a passive verb.

14. Instead of a single word, or an infinitive, a substantive clause may become one of the objects; as, "He informed me *that the boat had sailed.*"

213. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the sentences, and parse the objective nouns and pronouns in the following examples:—*

Ambition makes the same mistake concerning power that avarice makes concerning wealth. If you have performed an act of great and disinterested virtue, conceal it. Imperial Rome governed the bodies of men, but did not extend her empire farther. In former times, patriots prided themselves on their own poverty, and the riches of the state. He endeavored to inculcate right principles. He sought to follow the example of the good. They say that they have bought it. The truly great consider, first, how they may gain the approbation of God. He inquired, "Who comes there?"

MODEL I. "Thou hast delivered me from the strivings of the people; and thou hast made me the head of the heathen."—*Psalms* xviii. 43.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two coördinate parts, connected by "and." The first is a simple sentence, having "thou" for its subject, and "hast delivered" for its simple, and "hast delivered me from the strivings of the people," for its complex predicate. (Point out all the modifications of the simple predicate.)

The second component part is also a simple sentence, having "thou" for its subject, "hast made" for its simple, and "hast made me the head of the heathen," for its complex predicate. The simple predicate "hast made" is modified by "me the head of the heathen," an objective element, consisting of "me," the *direct*, and "the head of the heathen,"

Object after *buy, sell, &c.* Direct object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive.

the *attributive* object, both together forming a double object, used to complete the meaning of "hast made."

"Me" is a personal pronoun, of the first person, singular number, masculine gender, and objective case, and in the first clause is the object of "hast delivered," according to Rule VIII.; and in the second, the leading or direct object of "hast made."

"Head" is a common noun, third person, &c., and is the *attributive* object of "hast made," "me head," combined, being the double object, according to Rule VIII., a.

In the same manner, parse "him," and "to write," in the sentence, "I commanded *him* to write."

MODEL II. "He gave me a promise."

"He" is the subject, and "gave" the simple, and "gave me a promise," the complex predicate; "gave" is limited by "me" and "promise,"—the latter a direct, and the former an indirect object of "gave." Let the learner parse each, and give Rule VIII., b., and Rule VIII.

2. Construct examples of your own to illustrate the object after transitive verbs.

3. Correct the following examples by the rule:—

Who did you see yesterday? Who did he marry? They that help us we should reward. He who committed the offence thou shouldst punish, not I, who am innocent. Who should I find but my cousin? Will you let him and I sit together? I did not know whe to send.

214. Adverbs as Modifiers.

1. RULE IX. *Adverbs* are used to limit verbs, participles, adjectives, and other adverbs; as, "Lightning moves *swiftly*." "He advanced walking *slowly*;" "The night was *very* dark;" "The sound was heard *very* distinctly."

2. Some adverbs, instead of modifying any particular word, are either independent, or are used to modify an entire proposition; as, *yes*, *no*, *nay*, *amen*, *likewise*, *truly*, &c. "Will you go? *Yes*."—"Truly, God is good to Israel."

3. Any word or group of words performing the office of an adverb, is called an *adverbial* element or expression. If it be a group of words, it should first be disposed of as an adverb, and then resolved into its component parts.

4. An adverb or adverbial expression should be placed so near the word which it limits, as to make its relation obvious; yet no element of the sentence can be so easily transposed without causing ambiguity, as the adverbial. It may be placed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence;

Adverbs modify a proposition. An adverbial element. Position of the adverb.

as, "He *carefully* examined the document" — *Carefully* did he examine the document. He examined the document *carefully*.

5. Adverbs are used sometimes to limit the meaning of a preposition, sometimes a phrase; as, "He held his hand *exactly* over the place" "We were absent *almost* a year."

6. Adverbs are themselves sometimes modified by *phrases* or *clauses*; as, "He left *four years afterwards*." "He came *some time ago*." "He ran *faster* than his brother."

7. *What*, equivalent to *partly*, is sometimes used as an adverb (75, 7). *Once* — one time, is often used as a noun; as, "Excuse me for this *once*." "So, also, *when*, *now*, and *then*, are used as nouns; as, "Until *now*;" "Since *then*;" "Since *when*."

8. Conjunctive adverbs are complex words usually modifying two words, and, at the same time, joining an adverbial clause to the word on which it depends; as, "We shall be present *when* the boat arrives" (135, 2).

CAUTION I. *Two negatives should never be employed to express a negation*; as, "I have no book," not, "I haven't no book."

CAUTION II. *Avoid the use of an adverb when the quality of an object, and not the manner of an action, is to be expressed*; as, "The apple tastes *sweet*," not, "*sweetly* tastes."

CAUTION III. *Avoid the use of NO to express negation, with a verb or participle*; as, "I shall not change my course of action, whether you do or not," not, "whether you do or no."

CAUTION IV. *Never use HOW before THAT, or instead of it*; as, "He said that he should come," not, "*how* he should come," nor, "*how* that he should come."

215. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the sentences, and parse the adverbs in the following examples* :—

You both are truly welcome. Speak softly, for a breath might wake her. Yet we may strongly trust his skill. How heavily her fate must weigh her down! Freely to give reproof, and thankfully to receive it, is an indispensable condition of true friendship. How happy they who wake no more! How soon man's earthly enjoyments pass away! How easily are men diverted from a good cause!

MODEL I. "Burke was deeply hurt."—*Macaulay*.

This simple sentence has "Burke" for its subject, "was hurt" for its grammatical, and "was deeply hurt" for its logical predicate; "was hurt" is limited by "deeply," a simple adverbial element of the first class, used to show *how* he was hurt.

Adverbs limit prepositions or phrases. *What*, an adverb. Conjunctive adverbs.

"Deeply" is an adverb, comp. *deeply, more deeply, most deeply*, and is used to limit "was hurt," by Rule IX. (Repeat it.)

2. Construct examples of your own to illustrate the uses of the adverb.

3. Correct, by the Cautions, the following examples:—

I will not take that course by no means. I did not like neither his principles nor his practice. I cannot write no more. Nothing never can justify such conduct. He will never be no better. Neither he nor no one else believes the story. I never go nowheres. I am resolved not to trust him, neither now, nor any other time. No one knows neither the causes nor the effects of such influences.

His expressions sounded harshly. Satin feels very smoothly. Give him a soon and decisive answer. Such incidents are of seldom occurrence. The then emperor issued a decree. Did he arrive safely? She seemed beautifully.

Know now whether this be thy son's coat, or no? Tell me whether I shall do it, or no. I will ascertain if it is true, or no.

He said how he believed it. She told me how that she would come if she could. He remarked how time was valuable.

4. Exchange the following adverbs for equivalent PHRASES, containing a preposition and its object:—

The soldiers fought *bravely*. The cars are moving *rapidly*. There stands the house. The bee builds its cells *skilfully*. The winds blow *fiercely*. Where are you teaching? Why do you delay? Read *carefully*. Listen *attentively*.

216. Case Independent and Interjection.

1. RULE X. The nominative case *independent*, and the *interjection*, have no grammatical relation to the other parts of the sentence.

(a.) A noun or pronoun may be independent by *direct address*; as, "*Plato, thou reasonest well.*"

(b.) A noun or pronoun may be independent by *mere exclamation*; as, "*O wretched man that I am!*"

(c.) A noun or pronoun may be independent by *pleonasm*, or when the attention is drawn to an object before anything is said of it; as, "*Harry's flesh, it fell away.*" "*Gad, a troop shall overcome him.*"

(d.) A noun or pronoun may be independent or absolute, when, in connection with a *participle*, it is equivalent to a proposition, of which it

Nominative case independent. Interjections. Direct address. Exclamation. Pleonasm.

was the subject before the former was abridged; as, "*He having arrived, we returned.*"

(c.) A noun or pronoun may be independent, when, in an abridged proposition, it follows the *infinitive* or *participle* of the copula, and is uncontrolled by a preceding noun; as, "I was not aware of his being a scholar" "To be a scholar requires industry and perseverance."

2. In the last two cases, though the *noun* is absolute, the group of words to which it belongs, including the *participle* or *infinitive*, has some connection with the rest of the sentence.

3. In the case of the *nominative absolute*, that is, the *nominative* preceding a *participle*, sometimes the *noun* or *pronoun* is understood, and sometimes the *participle*; as, "Properly speaking, there is no such thing as cold;" that is, *we, or one, speaking properly* "This done, and all is safe;" that is, *being done*. "This matter at an end, we will proceed;" *being at an end*.

4. Both of the last two cases result from abridging a dependent clause. The abridged construction may usually be restored to a complete proposition.

5. Sometimes a noun or pronoun appears to be put absolute with an *infinitive*; as, "And I to be a corporal in the field, and wear his colors like a tumbler's hoop." "What? I! I love! I sue! I seek a wife!"

217. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the interjections and cases independent:—

Fair daffodils! we weep to see you haste away so soon O day most calm, most bright! With thee, sweet hope, resides the heavenly light. A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse! The pilgrim fathers! where are they? He having given us the direction, we departed. I was not aware of his being the preacher. O the times! O the manners! Ah, father! these are wondrous words. The savage rocks have drunk thy blood, my brother!

MODEL I. "Alack! alack! Edmund, I like not this unnatural dealing."

This is a simple sentence, preceded by the interjections "Alack! Alack!" and the compellative (157, 3), or the name of the person addressed. These have no part in the grammatical construction of the sentence.

"I" is the subject, and "like" the simple, and "like not this unnatural dealing," the complex predicate. (Point out the limitations of the simple predicate.)

"Alack" is an interjection, expressive of grief, and has no dependence upon any part of the sentence, by Rule X., a. (Repeat it.)

Subject nominative absolute. Predicate nominative absolute.

"*Edmund*" is a proper noun, second person, singular number, and nominative case independent by direct address. Rule X.; see *a*.

MODEL II. "But, O vain boast!

Who can control his fate?"—*Shakspeare*.

"*Boast*" is a common noun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and nominative case independent by exclamation. Rule X.; see *b*.

MODEL III. "Gad,—a troop shall overcome him."—*Bible*.

"*Gad*" is a proper noun, third, sing. masc. nom. independent by pleonasm. Rule X.; see *c*.

MODEL IV. "The war having ended, the army was disbanded."

For the Analysis of this case, see 199, 1, Model III.

"*War*" is a common noun, third, sing. neut. nominative absolute with the participle "having ended." Rule X.; see *d*.

MODEL V. "He was displeased on account of my being a friend to his enemy."

For Analysis, see 201, 1. Model III.

"*Friend*" is a common noun, &c., and is in the nominative absolute by Rule X.; see *e*.

2. Construct examples to illustrate the use of the interjections and cases independent.

218. Co-ordinate Conjunctions.

1. RULE XI. *Coördinate* conjunctions are used to connect similar elements; as, "*Abraham, Isaac, AND Jacob* were Jewish patriarchs."

2. These conjunctions are used only when the parts connected are of the same rank (159), and not even then, unless there is some *similarity* or *contrast* in the thoughts or ideas expressed by the united parts. Thus, when two thoughts are uttered; as, "The king sat upon his throne;" "The south wind is blowing gently," they may hold the same rank as independent sentences; but being wholly unlike in meaning, they cannot blend into one sentence. So, again, the adjective element "old" and "brown," in the expression, "That *old brown* house," are of the same rank, but do not express kindred ideas. Compare with these, "We have much to do, *AND* our time is short;" "A *wise AND patriotic* sovereign."

3. When the connection between two similar coördinate thoughts or ideas is to be made close, or one is to be made more emphatic than the other, two

Coördinate conjunctions. Terms of the same rank and similar. Corresponding conjunctions.

conjunctions are used,—the one corresponding with the other, and both conspiring to form the connection; as, “The prince is *both* virtuous *and* wise;” “He *not only* reads Shakspeare’s plays, *but* he appreciates them.”

4. Sometimes a thought or an idea sustains a double relation to another, the one simply *coördinate*, the other *causal*, *illative*, *concessive*, *augmentative*, *ordinative*, *partitive*, &c. The former is represented by the simple *coördinate* conjunction (sometimes understood), placed between the *coördinate* parts, and the latter by a connective (sometimes adverbial in its nature) associated with it; as, “The south wind blows [*and*], *therefore*, there must be rain.” “She sings; [*and*] *besides* she plays beautifully.”

5. When the *coördinate* thought or idea is purely *causal*, the *causal* or *illative* conjunction expresses the whole connection; as, “The tree is falling, *therefore* run” — Run, *for* the tree is falling.

6. When *correlatives* are employed, the principal conjunction is usually placed at the beginning of the second or added clause, and its correlative is placed in the first, to give the reader or hearer an intimation of what is to follow; as, “Whether the truth of the matter will ever be discovered or not, is very doubtful.” Sometimes, inelegantly however, *either*, or *neither*, is placed at the end of the sentence; as, “I can not go, *nor* you *neither*” — *Neither* I *nor* you can go.

CAUTION I. *In a series of coördinate terms, unless great emphasis is required, insert the conjunction between the last two only.* Say, “Peter, James, and John,”—not, “Peter, and James, and John.”

CAUTION II. *In using correlatives, be careful to place both conjunctions so as mark correctly the prominent or contrasted terms.* Say, “He was *not only* poor, *but* idle,”—instead of, “*Not only* was he poor, *but* idle.”

CAUTION III. *Avoid dissimilar and disproportionate coördinate constructions.* Say, “I saw him *enter* the gate, and *ring* the bell.” Not, “I saw him *entering* the gate, and *ring* the bell.”

219. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the following sentences, and parse the conjunctions:—*

Clouds and darkness are round about him, righteousness and judgment are the habitation of his throne. They were united both by ties of friendship and of kindred. I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians. The country was wasted,—partly by war, partly by famine, and partly by pestilence. The relations of the teacher will be treated as threefold; first, to his pupils, secondly, to his school officers, and thirdly, to the parents. A hero on the day of battle has sacrificed a meal, and shall we therefore pity him? The situation is not suited to his tastes; the compensation, moreover, is meagre. They have, indeed, honored them with their praise, but they have disgraced them with their

Two *coördinate* conjunctions. Position of conjunction and correlative.

pity. Not only can he gain no lofty improvement without labor, but without it he can gain no tolerable happiness.

MODEL I. "Talent has many a compliment from the bench, but tact touches fees from attorneys and clients."—*London Atlas*.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two coördinate principal clauses. They are related by contrast (218, 2), and, hence, readily unite to form one sentence. Let the learner analyze each separately.

"*But*" is an adversative coördinate conjunction, and used to join the second clause to the first, by Rule XI.

It must be coördinate to join clauses of equal rank. It is adversative, since the clauses are not in harmony with each other, but the second restricts the thought expressed by the first, by shutting off, or opposing any such inference as that the mere preëminence of talent with the *bench* implies universal preëminence. It also shows that the writer intended, by the contrast, to bring the second thought into greater prominence than the first.

"*And*," in the second clause, is a copulative coördinate conjunction, and is used to unite the two remote elements (159, 2), "from attorneys and [from] clients," by Rule XI.

These two phrases are similar in form, similar in the ideas expressed, equal in rank, equal in emphasis, and in perfect harmony with each other. Hence, they require not only a coördinate, but a copulative conjunction.

MODEL II. "The wolves have been exterminated, and, therefore, the flocks and herds are unmolested."

This is a compound sentence, containing two coördinate clauses,—the second being a partial compound. Let the learner analyze both clauses.

"*And*," in the first case, is a copulative coördinate conjunction, joining the two clauses, as grammatically equal, and in harmony with each other, by Rule XI.

"*Therefore*" is a causal coördinate conjunction, and is used to show that the second clause is a logical deduction from the first. It conspires with "*and*" to join the two clauses,—the one grammatically, the other logically, but both coördinately. by Rule XI.

"*And*," in the second clause, is a copulative coördinate conjunction, and is used to join the two subjects, "flocks" and "herds," by Rule XI. As these are prominent elements of the clause, it is a partial compound.

2. Construct or select other sentences containing coördinate conjunctions, and explain their use.

Models.

3. Correct the following examples by the Cautions:—

They confess the power, and wisdom, and love, and goodness of their Creator. John, and James, and Henry, and Charles will return this evening. His conduct was unkind, and unjust, and unmerciful.

He neither came nor was sent for. We pervert the noble faculty of speech, when we use it to the defaming, or to disquiet our neighbors. We hope that we shall hear from him, and that he has returned. I always have, and I always shall be of this opinion. The work was executed with rapidity and promptly. It is a region distinguished by many charming varieties of rural scenery, and which may be termed the Arcadia of Scotland. He retired voluntarily, and a conqueror.

Are we not lazy in our duties or make a Christ of them? In many pursuits we embark with pleasure, and land sorrowfully.

It is a good which neither depends on the will of others, nor on the affluence of external fortune. Either sentences are simple or compound. His fortune has not only suffered by his folly, but his health. This is not merely a question of interest, but of right also.

220. Co-ordinate Constructions.

1. RULE XII. When a verb or pronoun relates to two or more nouns connected by a coördinate conjunction,—

(a.) If it agrees with them taken *conjointly*, it must be in the *plural* number.

(b.) But if it agrees with them taken *separately*, it must be of the same number as that which stands next to it.

(c.) If it agrees with *one*, and *not* the other, it must take the number of that one.

EXAMPLES.—“Charles and his sister *were* absent, but *they* were sent for.” “Charles or his sister *was* absent.” “Charles or his sisters *were* absent.” “Charles, and not his sister, *was* absent.”

2. In the following cases, nouns in the singular *seem* to be taken conjointly, and yet the verb and pronoun should be singular,—

(a.) When the coördinate nouns denote the *same* person in *different* capacities; as, “This great *statesman* and *orator* died lamented by all his friends.”

(b.) When the coördinate nouns are considered *separately*, by means of such limiting words as *each*, *every*, or *no*; as, “*Each* day and *each* hour brings its own duties and trials.” “*Every* book and *every* paper was taken from its place.” “*No* book and *no* paper should be left out of its place.”

(c.) When the coördinate nouns are distinguished with emphasis by means of *not*, *only*, *too*, *as well as*, or when there is an emphatic enumeration of individuals; as, “George, and *not* James, is at his task.” “Truth, and truth

Coördinate constructions—taken conjointly—separately. Exceptions.

only, is worth seeking for *its* own sake." "The man, and his servant *too*, *was* rewarded." "The father, *as well as* his son, *was* in fault." "Thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory."

(d.) When the coördinate nouns are regarded by the mind as representing one thing; as, "Bread and milk *is* excellent food for children." "The horse and chaise *is* in *its* place."

3. Thus far reference has been had only to the *number* of the verb and pronoun. It often happens that the coördinate words are of different *persons*. When the coördinate parts are of *different persons*, the verb or pronoun agrees with the first rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third; as, "*Thou* and *thy* sons with thee (that is, *ye*) shall bear the iniquity of *your* priesthood." "*John*, *thou*, and *I* (that is *we*) are attached to *our* country."

4. When the coördinate parts are each *singular*, and of *different genders*, several cases may arise,—

(a.) The *verb* may relate to them *conjointly*, while the *pronoun* may relate to but one; as, "*James* and his sister *were* destroying *her* bonnet." "*James* and his sister *were* destroying *his* cap."

(b.) The *pronoun* may relate to them taken *conjointly*, while the *verb* relates to them taken separately; as, "*James* or his sister *has* destroyed *their* dictionary," the dictionary being theirs by a joint ownership.

(c.) When the *pronoun* has a common reference to both coördinate nouns taken *conjointly*, the gender cannot be distinguished by the pronoun, since the latter is plural, and consequently has, in English, the same form for all genders.

(d.) When the *pronoun* refers to two or more coördinate nouns taken *separately*, there is no personal pronoun, in English, applicable to each, and there is an inherent difficulty in constructing the expression properly; as, "John or Ellen has lost *his* or *her* pencil." To use *his* alone, or *her* alone, would reveal the ownership, which is supposed to be unknown. Hence it does not avail to say that the *masculine* is preferred to the *feminine*, and the *feminine* to the *neuter*; for either would become explicit, as in case (4, a.). To avoid this difficulty, it is best to recast the sentence, or so construct it as to escape such a dilemma. Yet, contrary to the general rule (202, 5), frequent instances occur in which the pronoun, in such cases, is put in the *plural*, and thus the gender is concealed; as, "Then shalt thou bring forth that *man* or that *woman* unto thy gates, and shalt stone *them* with stones, till *they* shall die."

5. When each of the coördinate parts is denoted by the *same* word, and that a singular noun referring to different objects, and each, except the last, is understood,—being represented by some modifying word, the agreement of the verb or pronoun follows the general rule; as, "A Webster's, a Worcester's, and a Richardson's *dictionary were* consulted;" that is, three dictionaries. "A literary, a scientific, a wealthy, and a poor man *were* assembled in one room."

6. Coördinate terms are taken separately, when one is affirmative, and the

Different persons. Coördinate constructions of different persons—genders. Pronouns relating to singular coördinate nouns taken conjointly, separately. When the coördinate parts are the same word.

other negative, or when one is opposed to, or contrasted with, the others ; in such cases, if both, or all the terms are plural, the pronoun or verb must, of course, be plural. When a verb or pronoun relates to two coördinate terms, connected by *as well as*, *save*, *but*, *but not*, or *and not*, it should agree with the former, and be understood to the latter, whatever be its number ; as, "The minutest insect, *as well as* the largest quadruped, derives its life from the same omnipotent source ;" "None, *but* he, can heal the malady of the soul ;" "There was no stranger with us in the house, *save* we two in the house."

7. Two terms may be coördinate logically, but not grammatically ; as, "*Godliness with contentment is great gain*" = *Godliness* and *contentment*, &c. In such cases, the verb or pronoun should agree with the term to which it refers grammatically.

221. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the following sentences, and point out and parse the verbs and pronouns which illustrate the rule :—*

Where was it when winds and clouds were his only visitors, and when the sun and blue heavens by day, and the moon and stars by night, alone looked down and beheld it, the same as they behold it now ? One day the poor woman and her idiot boy were missed from the market-place. Neither his vote, his influence, nor his purse was ever withheld from the cause in which he had engaged. Neither the captain nor the sailors were saved. Whether one person or more were concerned in the business, does not appear. Every insect, and every bird, was hushed to silence.

NOTE.—For Models, see (203, 1), and (205, 1).

2. *Construct or select other examples to illustrate this rule.*

222. Prepositions.

1. RULE XIII. A *preposition* is used to show the relation of its object to the word on which the object depends ; as, "George *went INTO the garden* ;" "A life *of* virtue is a life *of* happiness."

2. The noun or pronoun following the preposition is always dependent on some term, usually a *preceding* one, and the preposition is used to *show* that dependence. Properly speaking, the objective is not the object of the preposition, but of the preceding term. In the case of the transitive verb, there are two terms, the verb itself and the objective, and the relation between them is closer than between those in which the preposition is used ; the objective is not called the *object* of that relation, but rather of the antecedent term, the verb. Yet custom makes the noun the *object* of the preposition.

3. Sometimes the antecedent term is omitted, and sometimes the subsequent ; as, "*In a word*, he is ruined" = To express all *in a word*, &c. "He looked

Two terms logically but not grammatically coördinate. Prepositions show a dependence. Antecedent or subsequent term omitted. -

around" supply [him]. When the object is understood, the preposition is usually parsed as an adverb. *For*, used before an infinitive and its objective subject, when the group is taken as the subject of a proposition, has no antecedent term; as, "*For* him to lie is base." The *to* of the infinitive, when both together constitute the subject, represents no relation to an antecedent term; as, "*To* lie is base."

4. *Between* and *betwixt* refer to two objects; *among* and *amongst* to more than two; as, "He walked *between* the trees" (two trees). "He walked *among* the trees" (many trees).

5. Sometimes the preposition is involved in the antecedent term, or, at least, is suggested by it; as, *near* [*to*], *like* [*to*].

6. When the preposition is placed at the beginning of a sentence, or when, with its object, it precedes the antecedent term of the relation which it shows, the relation may be easily discovered by reërranging the sentence. Thus, "*Of* all the topics involved in this theme, it will be impossible for me to speak" = It will be impossible for me to *speak* of all the topics, &c.

CAUTION. In expressing the relations between words, be careful to employ appropriate prepositions. Say, "That is different from what I expected," not, "Different to what I expected."

223. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the prepositions:—

I call to you with all my voice. From end to end, from cliff to lake, 'twas free. Her tears were now flowing without control. She is like some tender tree, the pride and beauty of the grove—graceful in its form, bright in its foliage, but with the worm preying at its heart.

MODEL. "Of all his errors, the most serious was, perhaps, the choice of a champion" = "The most serious [error] of all his errors, was, perhaps, the choice of a champion."

This is a simple sentence. "Error" understood is the subject, and is limited by "the," "most serious," and "of all his errors." (Describe and classify each.) "Was choice" is the predicate, of which "was" is the copula, and "choice" is the attribute; "was" is limited by the modal adverb "perhaps," used to give a degree of uncertainty to the assertion; "choice" is limited by "the" and "of a champion." (Describe and classify each.)

"Of" is a preposition, and, in the first instance, shows the relation of "errors" to "error" understood; in the second instance, it shows the relation of "champion" to "choice." Rule XIII. (Repeat it.)

2. Construct examples of your own to illustrate the use of the prepositions when the antecedent term is a NOUN, an ADJECTIVE, a VERB, an ADVERB.

For and *to*. *Between*, *betwixt*, *among*, *amongst*. Position of the preposition. Model.

8. *Correct, by the Caution, the following examples:—*

I am engaged with my work. Mesopotamia lies among two rivers. I left my book to home. Come in my house. They insist on it, that you are wrong. My friend has a strong prejudice to the candidate. That mother is too indulgent with her child. With what are you so intent? We should profit from the experience of others. That boy is not careful with his books. With what does he excel?

224. The Object of the Preposition.

1. **RULE XIV.** A noun or pronoun used as the *object* of a preposition must be in the objective case; as, "The ruins of the *Parthenon* stand upon the *Acropolis* in the *city* of *Athens*."

(a.) Before nouns in the objective, denoting *time, measure, distance, quantity, value, or direction*, and before such as follow *near, nigh, like, and worth*, the preposition is usually omitted; as, "The wall is six *feet* high;" "We walked twenty *miles* that *day*;" "He helped a worthy man, and is not a *penny* poorer;" "My friend has gone *West*;" "He is like his *father*;" "They live *near* the *city*;" "The book is worth a *dollar*."

2. The preposition is omitted as in (212, 4); and in dates, there is usually an omission of several prepositions; as, "[At] Boston, [on] Monday, [of] February the 10th, [in the year] 1860."

3. The word *worth* is by some called a preposition; but it can be predicated of a noun like an adjective, and may be qualified by an adverb; and what is more, it expresses an *idea* of quality rather than a *relation* between words; as, "The lesson is *well* worth learning;" "It is *richly* worth the money." *Worth* is sometimes a noun, and sometimes a verb; as, "The *worth* of a dollar;" "A person of great *worth*;" "Woe *worth* the day." In this last example, *worth* is a verb in the imperative, equivalent to *be to*, and *day* is the indirect object of it.

4. *But* and *save*, in the sense of "except," are generally used as prepositions; as, "Whence all *but* him had fled;" yet formerly, and by some writers even now, they are regarded as conjunctions; as, "Neither knoweth any man the Father, *save* the Son, and *he* to whomsoever the Son will reveal him."

5. Prepositions are sometimes followed by *adjectives*, or *adverbs* used substantively; as, *in vain, on high, for this once, till now, from thence, from above*.

6. *Than* before *whom*, has been erroneously supposed by some to be a preposition; as, "*Than* whom none higher sat." *Than* is no more a preposition here than in case of any other proper use of the word. It denotes comparison, and the construction requires that it should be followed by the nominative, instead of the objective *whom*. Though used by some good writers, it should be avoided as anomalous. In this case, it should be disposed of by saying that it is the objective by the figure enallage (237, 8.)

The object of the preposition. Nouns denoting *time, measure, &c.* Preposition omitted. *Worth.* *But* and *save.* Prepositions followed by *adjectives* or *adverbs.* *Than.*

225. Exercise.

1. *Analyze the following examples, and parse the prepositions and their objects:—*

A similar improvement may be made of the memory of our good deeds. What ground of hope is there so sure to his spirit, next to the mercy of his God, and the intercession of Christ, his Saviour? It was not long before he returned with his man, whom he introduced to me as a person of exceeding honesty; and we went into the yard all together.

MODEL. "We live in an age of sifting."—*Neander*.

Let the learner analyze this sentence.

"*Age*" is a common noun, third, sing., neut., obj., and is the object of the preposition "in." Rule XIV.

"*Sifting*" is a participial noun, in the objective case, and is used as the object of the preposition "of." Rule XIV.

2. *Construct examples in which any of the prepositions (140) shall join adjective or adverbial phrases.*

3. *Change the phrases, consisting of a preposition and its object, into equivalent ADJECTIVES or ADVERBS:—*

The dew of the morning has passed away. The temple of Solomon was destroyed by the Chaldean monarch. The messenger was sent in haste. The laborer entered upon his task with eagerness. The waves dash upon the rocks with fury.

226. Subordinate Connectives.

1. RULE XV. *Subordinate connectives* are used to join dissimilar elements; as, "He *that* hath pity on the poor, lendeth to the Lord."

2. Subordinate connectives, unlike coördinate, show a relation of dependence, and are used to join, not clauses of equal rank, but dependent clauses to an antecedent term, which they serve to modify, except as below (3).

3. *That, whether*, or the various interrogatives, *when, where, &c.*, when used to introduce a substantive clause employed as the subject of a proposition, do not connect the clause to an antecedent term, since the subject can be subordinate to no other part of the proposition. These connectives thus used serve to convert a principal proposition into a subordinate substantive proposition, which, like any noun, may be used as the subject.

4. In many cases, the subordinate connective has a corresponding word in the principal clause, called the correlative; as, "*Then—when, there—where,*

Subordinate connectives show dependence. *That, whether, &c.* Corresponding connectives.

if—then, though—yet, so—that, so—as, as—as, the, this, that, these, those—who, that, or which.

5. Though a subordinate conjunction appropriately joins a clause to some preceding term, yet *than* and *as* sometimes appear to connect words only; as, "Less judgment than wit, is more sail than ballast." "The moon, as satellite, attends." Though this connection seems to resemble coördinate, the terms joined are not of the same rank. *As* has a peculiar use when thus employed to connect an attribute, either predicated or assumed, to the noun to which it belongs; it not only gives emphasis, but expresses the idea of capacity or office; as, "He was employed as clerk;" "The fruit was considered as good;" "He offered himself as printer;" "I do not respect your rules as such;" "What is a pronoun as distinguished from a noun?"

6. *Than*, or *as*, when used to show comparison, instead of connecting words only, generally introduces an elliptical clause, which becomes so on account of the similarity of its construction to that of the principal clause; as, "He is more nice than wise," that is, "than he is wise." "He is as old as his cousin," that is, "as his cousin is old." Sometimes the subsequent term is not only elliptical, but abridged; as, "The patient is so well as to sit up," that is, "so well as that he can sit up." "The boy knows better than to disobey (182, 7).

7. *As*, following an adjective, and sometimes a noun, and without a correlative, gives an adversative signification to the subordinate clause; as, "Defenceless as we were, we still maintained our ground" = Though we were defenceless, &c. *That* or *as*, after a noun, has a similar construction to denote concession; as, "Fool that [or as] I was, I entered the army."

8. Subordinate connectives are a kind of preposition placed before a sentence which is to be converted into a noun, adjective, or adverb. Hence, their position is almost invariably at the head of the clause.

CAUTION. In using a noun or pronoun in an elliptical clause, following *THAN* or *AS*, avoid both ambiguity and an incorrect construction. Say, My brother is older than I,—not, *than me*.

NOTE.—There is danger of ambiguity only when two different cases occur in the preceding clause; as, "Lovest thou me more than these?" that is, "more than these love me," or, "more than thou lovest these."

227. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following examples, and parse the connectives:—

While there is life, there is hope. However friendly he might appear, his heart was full of anger. Whether the moon has an atmosphere, has not been ascertained. He that plants trees, loves others beside himself. What comes from the heart goes to the heart. Time will bring to light whatever is hidden. The more we serve God, the better we serve ourselves. As far as the eye could see, all was ruin and desolation. Work

Than and *as*. *As*, denoting capacity or office. *Than*, or *as*, showing comparison. *As*, adversative. *That*, or *as*, denoting concession.

as long as you can. The more one has, the more he requires. Revenge always costs more than it is worth. That you may be loved, be deserving of love.

MODEL I. "If we draw within the circle of our contemplation the mothers of a civilized nation, what do we see?"—*Webster*.

This is a complex interrogative sentence, consisting of a principal and a subordinate clause.

"*We*" is the subject of the principal clause, and "*do see*" is the simple predicate. "*Do see*" is limited by the interrogative "*what*," and by the conditional clause "*If we draw*," &c.

"*If*" is a subordinate connective, and joins the subordinate clause, which it introduces, to the predicate of the principal clause. These elements are dissimilar in *rank*, in *meaning*, and in *form*; they are connected by Rule XV Repeat it.

MODEL II. "As ye have therefore received Christ Jesus the Lord, so walk ye in him."

"*Therefore*," in this complex sentence, is a coördinate conjunction, joining the whole sentence as an inference, to a preceding sentence.

"*As*" is a subordinate connective, having, as its correlative, the adverb "*so*" in the principal clause. It joins the subordinate clause, "*As ye have therefore received*," &c., to "*walk*." Rule XV.

2. Construct examples in which any of the RELATIVE PRONOUNS shall join adjective clauses (143, 17),—others in which THAT, THAT NOT, or any of the interrogatives shall join substantive clauses (143, 16),—and still others in which any of the connectives in (143, 18) shall join adverbial clauses.

3. Correct, by the Caution, the following examples:—

Who can write better than him? Whom does he honor more than I? I know James better than him. The lion can devour a sheep as well as a wolf.

228. The Infinitive.

1. **RULE XVI.** The *infinitive* has the construction of the *noun*, with the signification and limitations of the verb, and, when dependent, is governed by the word which it limits; as, "*To err is human*;" "*They desire to travel in a foreign country*;" "*He wishes to obtain a treatise on the deposition of dew*."

(a.) After the active voice of *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *need*, *make*, *see*, *behold*, *hear*, and *feel*, and some others, the *to* of the infinitive is omitted; as, "*I saw him do it*;" "*They let him go*."

Models. The infinitive after *bid*, *dare*, *have*, &c.

2. The infinitive is properly the simple name of the verb; and, as such, was originally used without a preposition, as subject or object, in a proposition. Of these uses, we have the form of one only remaining, namely, that of object after the auxiliaries (111, 4); as, "Shall write," "will read," "do love," &c. But here the principal verb has lost its original character,—has become an auxiliary, a mere index of time and mode, and the infinitive is changed from object to attribute.

3. The infinitive, as now recognized in the language, is the dative case of the ancient infinitive; or the simple infinitive with the preposition *to* prefixed. The two words are so united as to be regarded as an inseparable phrase; as, "*To live* is Christ, and *to die* is gain."

4. The infinitive may be used with or without a subject (184, II., 1, 2); as, "We wish you *to stay*." "We wish *to stay*."

5. The infinitive may have a *subject* in the *objective*, when its subject has not already been expressed in the sentence; as, "They ordered *him to leave*."

(a.) The infinitive of the copula may also have a *predicate objective*; as, "I knew *him to be a preacher*."

(b.) The infinitive, and its subject, may be the *subject* of a proposition; the phrase must then be introduced by *for*; as, "*For you to deceive* is criminal." "*For him to be a scholar* is impossible."

(c.) The infinitive and its subject may be made the *object* of a *transitive verb*, or of the *preposition for*; as, "He ordered *the horse to be harnessed*." "They considered *him [to be] a traitor*." "They appointed *him [to be] chairman*." "They ordered some water *for the boy to drink*."

6. When the subject has already been expressed, the infinitive is used without its subject, and may be

(a.) The *subject* of a proposition; as, "*To retaliate* is censurable."

(b.) The attribute of a proposition without the sign *to* (111, 4); as, "I do love;" "They may learn."

(c.) The attribute of a proposition with *to* prefixed; as, "To obey is to enjoy."

NOTE.—When the infinitive is thus used, it denotes (1.) An *equivalent term*; as, "To pray is to supplicate." (2.) What is *possible* or *obligatory*; as, "The passage is to be found." "Our duty is to be done." (3.) What is settled or determined upon; as, "The work is to commence to-morrow."

(d.) The *object* of a transitive verb, a preposition, or it may be used to complete the meaning of some intransitive verbs; as, "He wishes to remain." "They are about to go." "She went to weep."

(e.) An *adjective element* or *noun in apposition*, limiting another noun;

The name of the verb. The dative case. Used with or without the subject. Subject objective. Predicate objective. The subject of a proposition. Object of a proposition. The attribute of a proposition. The object of a transitive verb. An adjective element.

as, "Time to come." "A desire to go." "A hope to recover." "A wish to stay."

(f.) An adverbial element used to denote *purpose*, or *motive*; as, "What went ye out to see?"

NOTE.—In this use the infinitive is sometimes said, though not properly, to be absolute; "To confess the truth, I was in fault" = *That I may confess the truth, I was in fault.*

(g.) To denote a *result*, after *too*, *than*, *so*—as; as, "He is *too* proud to beg." "He is *wiser than* to attempt such an enterprise." "Be *so* good as to hear me."

7. The preposition *for* should never be used before the infinitive employed to express *motive* or *purpose*; also, the sign *to* should not be used at the close of a sentence; as, "He went to see," not "*for* to see." "He spoke, or intended to speak," not, "intended to."

8. The infinitive is often understood; as, "They considered him [to be] upright."

229. Exercise.

1. Analyze the following sentences, and parse the infinitives:—

I have brought a book for you to read. Johnson declared wit to consist in finding out resemblances. These passages prove that materialists will sometimes find Hume to be a very dangerous ally. For him to assert and deny the same sentiment on different pages, is proof of the instability of his opinions. It was well for him to die at his post, with his armor on. I heard him repeat whole pages of poetry. Few things are more destructive to the best interests of society than the prevalent but mistaken notion that it requires a vast deal of talent to be a successful knave. It is a disgrace to be the author of such a report. To take away the benevolent affections from the moral world, would be like extinguishing the sun from the natural. I love to roam over the green fields. He seems to think the rule inapplicable to his case. They appear to rest upon the solid earth. A desire to see his face once more induced us to attempt the journey. The work is to be commenced tomorrow. To be good is to be happy. They remained to see what was to be done. He was too feeble to write a letter. Will you be so good as to pass me that book?

MODEL I. "To see the sun is pleasant."

This is a simple sentence.

"To see" is the simple, and "to see the sun" is the complex subject. "To see" is limited by "the sun," a complex objective element of the first class. Here, though "to see" has the construction of a noun, that

An adverbial element denoting purpose, result. Models.

is, is in the nominative, it has the limitation of the verb, according to Rule XV.

"*To see*" is an irregular transitive verb, infinitive mode, present tense, and is used as a noun of the third pers., sing., neut., nom., and is made the subject of the proposition. Rule XV.

MODEL II. "I have heard say of thee, that thou canst understand a dream to interpret it."—*Bible*.

This complex sentence has an infinitive in each clause.

"*Say*" is an irregular transitive verb, having "of thee" for an indirect, and the subordinate clause for a direct object; infinitive mode, present tense, and, with its objective subject (*men* understood), forms the object of "have heard." Rule XV. See also (5, c.). It is put in the infinitive without the sign *to*, by Rule XV., a.

"*To interpret*" is a regular transitive verb, infinitive mode, present tense, and is used to limit "canst understand" as its object, by Rule XV. By an ancient idiom, its proper object is made the object of the principal verb, and is then pleonastically represented by "it." In modern style it would be, "understand *how to interpret a dream*," or "understand a dream *so as to interpret it*."

2. Construct examples of your own to illustrate the uses of the infinitive.

230. Participles.

1. RULE XVII. *Participles* have the construction of *adjectives* and *nouns*, and are limited like *verbs*; as, "He, *stooping* down, and *looking* in, saw the linen clothes *lying*; yet went he not in." "A habit of sincerity in *acknowledging* faults is a guard against committing them."

2. The participle used as an adjective assumes of its subject what the verb asserts; as, "*Hyacinths blooming*." "*Hyacinths bloom*."

(a.) When the participle is used wholly as an adjective (184, I., a.), it is called a *participial adjective*, and is placed before the noun; as, "*The rising sun*." "*The roaring billows*."

(b.) When the participle is used like an adjective, having the same signification and limitations as the verb, the participle, with the words which limit it, is then called the *participial construction*; as, "*Encouraged by this magnificent invitation*, the inhabitants of the globe considered labor as their only friend."

Participles. Used to assume an act. Used wholly as an adjective. Used as an adjective, with the limitations of the verb.

(c.) The participle of the copulative verbs may be followed by the predicate nominative, (1.) When the noun or pronoun to which it belongs is nominative. (2.) When the noun or pronoun to which it logically belongs is changed to the possessive; as, "*He being an accomplished writer.*" "I have heard of *his being an accomplished writer.*"

(d.) The participle of copulative verbs may be followed by a predicate objective when the noun or pronoun to which it belongs is in the objective; as, "We regarded *him as being a good writer.*" "He intrusted his son to a *gentleman named Edric.*"

(e.) The participle, like the adjective, may be used with the copula, to form the predicate; but in this construction it is regarded as a form of the verb; as, "*They were riding.*" "He was *deceived.*"

(f.) Participles, such as *admitting, speaking, granting*, and others, are used, as some say, independently; more properly they belong to some noun or pronoun understood; as, "Properly *speaking*, there is no such thing as chance" = *We speaking properly*, &c.

3. The participle may be used either wholly as a noun, or as a noun having the meaning and limitations of the verb; as, "It is pleasant to walk at the *rising of the sun.*" "We should avoid *giving pain to others.*"

(a.) The participle, used wholly as a noun, is preceded by an article or adjective, and followed by *of*; as, "The *sighing of the poor.*" "The *crying of the needy.*" In this case the participle cannot be limited, like the verb.

(b.) The participle having the construction of the noun, with the meaning and limitations of the verb, may be the *subject or predicate nominative*, or the *object of a transitive verb or preposition*; as, "*Loving our neighbor as ourselves is fulfilling the law.*" "*Stealing is taking without liberty.*" "We should avoid *breaking a promise.*" "On *approaching the house, the sound of a bell was faintly heard.*"

(c.) In this construction the participle is called the *participial noun*, and, as such, may be limited by a noun or pronoun in the possessive; as, "What do you think of *his writing a letter—his being a writer?*"

4. The participle, like the Latin gerund, may limit the predicate by expressing a *concomitant action*, yet may belong, grammatically, to the subject; as, "They remain *standing*;" "The Son of Man came *eating and drinking.*"

5. The participle is often equivalent to the infinitive; as, "We saw them *approaching the shore*" = *approach the shore.*

Participles of copulative verbs. The participle with the copula. Participles used independently. The participle used wholly as a noun—having the construction of the noun. Denoting concomitant action.

231. Exercise.

Analyze the following examples, and parse the participles :—

We expect the dancing-master to teach our children "manners," as well as the act of cutting awkward capers to music. Why is the experiment of an extended republic to be rejected? He came near being devoured by a panther. The case is well worth considering. They came upon him without his being apprised of their approach. The urchin's becoming so respectable a man surprised every one. The gentleman's reputation as a scholar was the cause of his being appointed professor of rhetoric. They narrowly escaped being taken prisoners. Being convinced of his guilt, we resolved to punish him. We descried a vessel stripped of its masts. Having declined the proposal, I determined on a course suited to my own taste. They have said, Come, and let us cut them off from being a nation. There is no doubt of his being a great statesman. The young maiden was seen standing on the shore, exposed to the merciless winds, and extending her hands towards heaven. Whom having not seen, ye love; in whom, though now ye see him not, yet believing, ye rejoice. In avoiding one error, do not fall into another. By consulting the best authors, he became learned. Stretching from horizon to horizon, losing itself like a limitless wall in the clouds above, it came pouring its green and massive waters onward, while the continual and rapid crash of falling forests, and crushed cities, and upturned mountains, thus prostrated, one after another, under its awful power, and the successive shrieks that pierced the heavens, rising even above the roar of the on-rushing ocean, as city after city, kingdom after kingdom, disappeared, produced terror and horror inconceivable, indescribable.

MODEL I. "Immured in cypress shades a sorcerer dwells."—*Milton.*

Let the learner analyze the sentence. It is a simple sentence,—or may be regarded as a contracted complex.

Immured is a passive participle, or past participle with a passive meaning (*immure, immured, immured*), and, like an adjective, belongs to "sorcerer," by Rule XVII., or Rule V.

MODEL II. "The admiral was too desirous of presenting himself before the sovereigns to protract his stay long at Palos." *Prescott.*

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is "the admiral;" the simple predicate is "was desirous," of which "was" is the copula, and "desirous" the attribute. The attribute is limited by "of presenting himself before the sovereigns," an indirect objective element, com-

Models.

plex,—of which “of presenting” is the basis; “of” is the connective, and “presenting” is the object. “Presenting” is limited, first, by the objective element “himself,” and second, by the complex adverbial element “before the sovereigns.” “Desirous” is further limited by “too,” which intimates the degree or intensity of his desire, and points, as a kind of correlative, to the phrase “to protract his stay long at Palos,” used to express the result of the desire. It expresses a kind of comparison, and is equivalent to another construction with *so—as not*, thus, —so desirous *as not* to protract, &c.

“*Presenting*” is a present participle, from the verb present (*present, presented, presented*), used as a noun, and is the object of the preposition *of*, by Rule XIV., and is limited according to Rule XVII., like the verb “present,” from which it is derived.

Construct examples of your own illustrating the various uses of the participle.

232. General Exercises for Analysis and Parsing.

1. *From London Atlas,—taken from Hillard's First Class Reader.*

Talent is something, but tact is everything. Talent is serious, sober, grave, and respectable: tact is all that and more too. It is not a sixth sense, but it is the life of all the five. It is the open eye, the quick ear, the judging taste, the keen smell, and the lively touch; it is the interpreter of all riddles, the surmounter of all difficulties, the remover of all obstacles. It is useful in all places, and at all times; it is useful in solitude, for it shows a man his way into the world; it is useful in society, for it shows him his way through the world. Talent is power, tact is skill; talent is weight, tact is momentum; talent knows what to do, tact knows how to do it; talent makes a man respectable, tact will make him respected; talent is wealth, tact is ready money. For all the practical purposes of life, tact carries it against talent, ten to one. Take them to the theatre, and put them against each other on the stage, and talent shall produce you a tragedy that will scarce live long enough to be condemned, while tact keeps the house in a roar, night after night, with its successful farces. There is no want of dramatic talent, there is no want of dramatic tact; but they are seldom together: so we have successful pieces which are not respectable, and respectable pieces which are not successful.

2. *Joan of Arc.—Mrs. Hemans.*

That was a joyous day in Rheims of old,
When peal on peal of mighty music rolled
Forth from her thronged cathedral; while around,
A multitude, whose billows made no sound,
Chained to a hush of wonder, though elate
With victory, listened at their temple's gate.

* * * * * But who, alone
 And unapproached, beside the altar stone,
 With the white banner, forth like sunshine streaming,
 And the gold helm, through clouds of fragrance gleaming,
 Silent and radiant stood?—The helm was raised,
 And the fair face revealed that upward gazed,
 Intensely worshipping:—a still, clear face,
 Youthful, but brightly solemn!—Woman's cheek
 And brow were there, in deep devotion meek,
 Yet glorified by inspiration's trace
 On its pure paleness. That slight form!
 Was that the leader through the battle storm?
 Had the soft light in that adoring eye,
 Guided the warrior where the sword flashed high?

8. *From Macaulay's Miscellanies.*

He saw that Hastings had been guilty of some most unjustifiable acts. All that followed was natural and necessary in a mind like Burke's. His imagination and his passions, once excited, hurried him beyond the bounds of justice and good sense. His reason, powerful as it was, was reduced to be the slave of feelings which it should have controlled. His indignation, virtuous in its origin, acquired too much of the character of personal aversion. He could see no mitigating circumstance, no redeeming merit. His temper, which, though generous and affectionate, had always been irritable, had now become almost savage by bodily infirmities and mental vexations. Conscious of great powers and great virtues, he found himself, in age and poverty, a mark for the hatred of a perfidious court and a deluded people. In Parliament his eloquence was out of date. A young generation, which knew him not, had filled the house. Whenever he rose to speak, his voice was drowned by the unseemly interruptions of lads, who were in their cradles when his orations on the Stamp Act called forth the applause of the great Earl of Chatham. These things had produced on his proud and sensitive spirit an effect at which we cannot wonder. He could no longer discuss any question with calmness, or make allowances for honest difference of opinion. Those who think he was more violent and acrimonious in debates about India than on other occasions, are ill-informed respecting the last years of his life. In the discussions on the Commercial Treaty with the court of Versailles, on the Regency, on the French Revolution, he showed even more virulence than in conducting the impeachment. Indeed, it may be remarked, that the very persons who represented him as a mischievous maniac for condemning in burning words the Robilla war, and the spoliation of the Begums, exalted him into an inspired prophet as soon as he began to declaim, with greater vehemence, and not with greater reason, against the taking of the Bastille, and the insults offered to Marie Antoinette.

4. *From Shakspeare's Merchant of Venice.*

The quality of mercy is not strained ;
 It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven,
 Upon the place beneath ; it is twice blessed :
 It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes :
 'Tis mightiest in the mightiest ; it becomes
 The throned monarch better than his crown.
 His sceptre shows the force of temporal power,
 The attribute to awe and majesty,
 Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings ;
 But mercy is above this sceptred sway,
 It is enthroned in the hearts of kings,
 It is an attribute to God himself ;
 And early power doth then show likest God's
 When mercy seasons justice. Therefore, Jew,
 Though justice be thy plea, consider this—
 That in the course of justice, none of us
 Should see salvation : we do pray for mercy ;
 And that same prayer doth teach us all to render
 The deeds of mercy. I have spoke thus much,
 To mitigate the justice of thy plea ;
 Which if thou follow, this strict court of Venice
 Must needs give sentence 'gainst the merchant there.

5. *From Byron's Childe Harold.*

The Goth, the Christian, Time, War, Flood and Fire,
 Have dealt upon the seven-hill'd city's pride ;
 She saw her glories star by star expire,
 And up the steep, barbarian monarchs ride,
 Where the car climbed the capitol ; far and wide
 Temple and tower went down, nor left a site :—
 Chaos of ruins ! who shall trace the void,
 O'er the dim fragments cast a lunar light,
 And say, "here was, or is," where all is doubly night ?

Alas ! the lofty city ! and alas !
 The trebly hundred triumphs ! and the day
 When Brutus made the dagger's edge surpass
 The conqueror's sword in bearing fame away !
 Alas, for Tully's voice, and Virgil's lay,
 And Livy's pictured page !—but these shall be
 Her resurrection ; all beside—decay.
 Alas, for earth, for never shall we see
 That brightness in her eye, she bore when Rome was free !

6. *From Campbell's Pleasures of Hope.*

Unfading Hope! when life's last embers burn,
 When soul to soul, and dust to dust return,
 Heaven to thy charge resigns the awful hour!
 Oh! then, thy kingdom comes! Immortal Power!
 What though each spark of earth-born rapture fly
 The quivering lip, pale cheek, and closing eye!
 Bright to the soul thy seraph hands convey
 The morning dream of life's eternal day—
 Then, then, the triumph and the trance begin,
 And all the phoenix spirit burns within!

7. *From Milton's Paradise Lost.*

They, looking back, all the eastern side beheld
 Of Paradise, so late their happy seat,
 Waved over by that flaming brand; the gate
 With dreadful faces thronged, and fiery arms.
 Some natural tears they dropped, but wiped them soon;
 The world was all before them, where to choose
 Their place of rest, and Providence their guide;
 They, hand in hand, with wandering step and slow,
 Through Eden took their solitary way.

8. *The Perfect Woman.—Wordsworth.*

And now I see with eye serene,
 The very pulse of the machine;
 A being breathing thoughtful breath,
 A traveller between life and death;
 The reason firm, the temperate will,
 Endurance, foresight, strength, and skill;
 A perfect woman, nobly planned,
 To warn, to comfort, and command;
 And yet a spirit still, and bright
 With something of an angel light.

9. *From Pope's Essay on Man.*

Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate,
 All but the page prescribed, their present state;—
 From brutes what men, from men what spirits know,
 Or who could suffer being here below?
 The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,
 Had he thy reason, would he skip and play?
 Pleased to the last he crops the flowery food,
 And licks the hand just raised to shed his blood!
 Oh, blindness to the future, kindly given,
 That each may fill the circle marked by Heaven,
 Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,
 A hero perish, or a sparrow fall.

233. Idiomatic and Peculiar Constructions.

1. *Analyze and parse the following examples :—*

The learned pagans ridiculed the Jews for being a credulous people.^a That the barons and freeholders derived their authority from kings is wholly a mistake.^b It^c is certainly as easy to be a scholar^d as a gamester. I am not sure of there ever having been such a man^e as Casper Hauser.^f The boy has more excuses than can be considered^g in the allotted hour. Six times six are thirty-six. He received sixty-two and a half^h cents for every three pounds he furnished. The thought of being goodⁱ ought to arouse us to action. The^j higher one is, the farther he can see. Cursed is he that setteth light^k by his father or his mother. The distance fell a little short of twenty miles. The wind blows cold. For Jacob^l my servant's sake, and Israel mine elect, I have even called thee by thy name. To be good is to be happy. I rejoice in your success as an instructor.^m He introduced me to the president—an honor which I shall not soon forget. They struck one another. The rain and the sunshine have each its appropriate work to do. It is man'sⁿ to err. I am my beloved's, and my beloved is mine. There shall nothing die of all that is the children's of Israel. Were you at Beecher's last evening's lecture? In Henry the Eighth's reign England and Wales were completely united. This book was purchased at Little and Brown's. Whom^o have they elected chairman? What^p do you call it? By the world, I would not care a pin^q if the other three were in. For^r one to steal is base. To confess the truth, I was in fault. Then shalt thou bring forth that man or that woman unto thy gates, and shalt stone them^s with stones till they shall die. He was so much affected as to weep.^t

2. *Parse and explain the words in italics :—*

To affect to be a *lord* in one's closet would be romantic madness. I am not aware of his ever having been a *teacher*. Was this owing to there *being* twelve primary *deities* among the Gothic nations? Wheat is worth a *dollar a bushel*. The whole affair is of no account *whatever*. All things *whatsoever* ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.

“Whoever thinks a faultless piece to see,
Thinks *what* ne'er was, nor is, nor e'er shall be.”

Whoever (202, 17) may oppose, we shall press the measure vigorously.
Excuse me this *once*.

And all the air a solemn stillness holds,
Save (224, 4) where the beetle wheels his droning flight.

^a 200, 1. *b.*; ^b 200, 7; ^c 198, 5; ^d 200, *b.*; ^e 226, 6; ^f 204, 4; ^g 206, 12;
^h 206, 19; ⁱ 206, 10; ^j 206, 13; ^k 208, 12; ^l 208, 13; ^m 210, 7; ⁿ 212, *a.*;
^o 224, *a.*; ^p 222, 3; ^q 220, 4, *d.*; ^r 226, 6.

A messenger came *rushing* from the crowd. The fire turned the cup *black*. The knife was ground *sharp*. The more I read it *the better* I like it. "*Who are you?*" was his greeting to this strange intruder. "*I will not hurt you,*" was the answer. *Let* there be *light*. Everything depends *upon* who compose the committee. We found four persons; *namely*, two men and two women. He is *both witty and wise*. Parrots will talk *like persons*. The boy is *like his father*. He gave some *apostles*; and some *prophets*; and some *evangelists*; and some *pastors and teachers*. He bids *whoever* thirst to come. *Though* he was rejected, he had the boldness *even* to renew his application. They *talked the night away*. They *ran the train* at the rate of fifty miles per hour. This is—*what do you call it?* I know not *whom* to send.

FIGURES.

NOTE.—A *figure* is a deviation from the ordinary *form, construction, and application* of a word. Hence figures are divided into those of *Etymology, Syntax, and Rhetoric*.

234. Figures of Etymology.

1. A figure of Etymology is a deviation from the ordinary *form* of a word.

2. Figures of Etymology consist either in a *defect, an excess, or a change*, in some of the elements of a word.

3. *Aphaeresis* cuts off a letter or syllable from the *beginning* of a word; as, '*gainst*, '*gan*, for *against, began*.

4. *Syncope* removes a letter or syllable from the *middle* of a word; as, *o'er, e'er, lov'd*, for *over, ever, loved*.

5. *Apocope* cuts off a letter or syllable from the *end* of a word; as, *th', tho'*, for *the, though*.

6. *Prosthesis* adds a letter or syllable to the *beginning* of a word; as, *adown, enchain*, for *down, chain*.

7. *Epenthesis* adds a letter or syllable to the *middle* of a word; as, *preventative, retraction*, for *preventive, retraction*. This figure seldom occurs in English.

8. *Paragoge* adds a letter or syllable to the *end* of a word; as, *withouten, bounden*, for *without, bound*.

9. *Synæresis* contracts two syllables into one; as, *thou'rt, 'tis*, for *thou art, it is*.

Figures. Figures of Etymology. Aphaeresis. Syncope. Apocope. Prosthesis. Epenthesis. Paragoge. Synæresis.

10. *Diæresis* separates two vowels which otherwise might form a diphthong; as, *coördinate, zoölogy*.

11. *Tmesis* separates a compound word by inserting a word between its parts; as, *to-us ward, for toward us*.

235. Exercise.

1. Point out the figures in the following examples:—

Around 'gan Marmion wildly stare.

The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.

Did ye not hear it? No: 'twas but the wind.

'Tis mine to teach th' inactive hand to reap

Kind nature's bounties, o'er the globe diffus'd.

O, *what's* the matter? *what's* the matter?

What *is't* that ails young Harry Gill?

A heart has throbb'd beneath that leathern breast,

And tears *adown* that dusky cheek have rolled.

He led, I wot, the softest way to death,

And taught *withouten* pain and strife to yield the breath.

2. What figures would you employ to render the following lines harmonious:—

It is the sunset of life gives me mystical lore.

For we have sworn, by our country's assaulters,

By the virgins they have dragged from our altars.

And every tempest howling over his head

Renders the savage wilderness more wild.

236. Figures of Syntax.

1. A figure of Syntax is a deviation from the ordinary construction of a word.

2. Figures of Syntax consist in a *defect*, an *excess*, or a *change* in some of the elements of a sentence.

3. *Ellipsis* is the omission of a word, phrase, or clause, which is necessary to complete the construction; as, "We were absent [during] one day."

4. It should be understood that the words omitted by this figure as

Diæresis. Tmesis. Figures of syntax.

truly belong to the sentence, grammatically considered, as those which are expressed. They are omitted for rhetorical effect, that is, to render the sentence more agreeable and forcible.

5. Ellipsis generally takes place,—

(a.) In *coördinate* constructions, to avoid the repetition of some common part; as,—

“There are some who write, [and who] talk, [and who] think so much about vice and [about] virtue, that they have no time to practise either the one or the other.”

(b.) In certain *subordinate* constructions, especially those which denote comparison, for the same reason; as,—

“Revenge is a stronger feeling than gratitude [is].” “Our minds are as different as our faces [are].”

(c.) In certain *idiomatic* constructions,—

(1.) In *elements of the first class*,—the *subject* of imperative sentences; as, “Go [thou].” “Awake [ye].” The noun after adjectives or after the possessive case; as, “The violent [persons] take it by force.” “This book is mine,” i. e., *my book*.

(2.) In *elements of the second class*. The *connective* may be omitted. Examples.—The *to* before the indirect object; as, “He gave [to] me a book.” The *to* of the infinitive after *bid, dare, let, make, hear, need, feel, see*. *To* or *unto* after *like, near*; as, like [to] his father, near [to] the house. *During, over, for, in, or on*, before nouns denoting *time*, the *measure of distance, magnitude, or excess*; as, “They left [on] Monday.” “They travelled [through] twenty miles.”

The *object* may be omitted; as, “The leaves were scattered around [us].” In such cases, the preposition is usually called an adverb.

(3.) In *elements of the third class*. The *connective* may be omitted in substantive clauses in the objective; as, “My heart whispers [that] God is nigh.” In adjective clauses when the relative is in the objective; as, “The paper [which] we purchased is damaged.” “The house [which] we went to stands on a hill.”

The *subject* and *copula* in expressions like “If [it is] possible, if necessary, if convenient, when agreeable, while absent,” &c.

The *whole clause* between *as* and *if*, *as* and *though*; as, “He seemed as [he would seem] if [he were] deranged.”

(d.) In *exclamatory* sentences, in *responsives*, in *inscriptions*, and *titles*; as, “[It is] strange!” “Whom did you see? [I saw] George.” “[This is] the New Testament.”

6. *Pleonasm* is the use of superfluous words; as, “I know *thee* who thou art.”

NOTE.—Pleonasm is the opposite of ellipsis, and may be said, in general, to take place where ellipsis should, but does not, take place.

Ellipsis in *coördinate, subordinate, and idiomatic* constructions. Ellipsis in *exclamatory sentences, &c.* Pleonasm.

7. Pleonasm takes place,—

(a.) When the same idea is repeated in the same or in different words; as, "*Verily, verily, I say unto you.*" "*All ye inhabitants of the world, and dwellers on the earth.*"

(b.) When a noun is introduced into a sentence, and then immediately represented in the same relation by a pronoun; as, "*Now Harry he had long suspected.*"

(c.) When a noun or any other word is repeated in the same relation, for the purpose of modifying it; as, "*That great God whom you see me daily worship; —*—*— that God who created the heavens and the earth; —*—*— this God who has done all these great things —*—*— this great God, the Creator of worlds, of angels, and men, is your Father and Friend.*"

8. *Enallage* is a change of one part of speech for another, or some modification of a word for another; as, "*They fall successive [ly] and successive. [ly] rise.*" "*We, Alexander, Emperor of Russia.*" Here, the plural number is used for the singular.

9. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words; as, "*While its song rolls the woods along.*"

237. Exercise.

1. Supply the words omitted by ellipsis in the following:—

<i>Cassius.</i>	_____ I am a soldier, I, Older in practice, abler than yourself To make conditions.
<i>Brutus.</i>	Go to! you're not, Cassius.
<i>Cas.</i>	I am.
<i>Bru.</i>	I say you are not.

Vigor from toil, from trouble patience grows.
One cried, God bless us! and Amen! the other.

2. Tell what figures occur in the following examples:—

The pilgrim fathers, where are they? Dark burned the candle.
For Renard close attended at his heels. Sometimes with early morn, he
mounted gay. Seven circling planets we behold. Say, burst they bor-
rowed from her father's wounds these drops.

Pleonasm. Enallage. Hyperbaton.

238. Figures of Rhetoric.

1. A figure of Rhetoric is a deviation from the ordinary application of a word; it is commonly called a *trope*.

2. *Metaphor* gives to an object the appropriate name of another object, on account of a resemblance between them; as, "Man! thou *pendulum* betwixt a smile and tear."

3. *Simile* is a formal comparison introduced by *like*, *as*, or *so*; as, "He shall be *like a tree* planted by the rivers of water."

4. An *Allegory* is a continued metaphor, forming a kind of parable or fable. For examples, see *Pilgrim's Progress*. See also the Eightieth Psalm.

5. *Personification* attributes to inanimate objects some of the qualities of living beings; as, "The sky *saddens* with the gathered storm."

6. *Metonymy* is a change of name; as, "You will address the *chair*;" i. e., the *president*.

7. *Vision* represents imaginary objects as real and present to the senses; as,—

"See lofty Lebanon his head advance;
See nodding forests on the mountains dance."

8. *Synecdoche* is the use of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part, as a *sail* for a *ship*, a *roof* for a *house*, the *head* for the *person*.

9. *Irony* is the use of a word for its opposite; as, "He was as *virtuous* as Nero;" i. e., as *vile* as Nero.

10. *Antithesis* is the placing of contrary or opposite objects in contrast; as, "*Immortal*, though *no more*; though *fallen*, *great*."

11. *Hyperbole* magnifies or diminishes an object beyond the truth; as, "*Rivers* of water run down mine eyes, because they keep not thy law."

12. *Exclamation* is used to express some strong emotion of the mind; as, "O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God!"

Figures of Rhetoric. Metaphor. Simile. Allegory. Personification. Metonymy. Vision. Synecdoche. Irony. Antithesis. Hyperbole. Exclamation.

13. *Interrogation* is used to express a strong affirmation under the form of a question; as, "Hath he said it, and will he not do it?"

14. *Apostrophe* is a turning off from the subject to address some other person or thing; as, "Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death, where is thy sting? O Grave, where is thy victory?"

15. *Climax* is a series of members in a sentence, each rising in importance above the preceding.

EXAMPLE.—"What hope is there remaining of liberty, if whatever is their pleasure it is lawful for them to do; if whatever it is lawful for them to do, they are able to do; if what they are able to do, they dare to do; if what they dare to do, they really execute; and if what they execute is no way offensive to you?"

239. Exercise.

Point out the figures in the following:—

"Yet at thy call the hardy tar pursued,
Pale, but intrepid; sad, but unsubdued."

'Twas then his threshold first received a guest.

"For a field of the dead rushes red on my sight,
And the clans of Culloden are scatter'd in flight."

He has at last assumed the sceptre. The power of appointment is vested in the crown. The garrison was put to the sword. In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat thy bread. The sea saw it and fled. Joseph is a fruitful bough. Devotion is a delicate and tender plant. A virtuous man, slandered by evil tongues, is like a diamond obscured by smoke. I will be to her a wall of fire. What ailed thee, O thou sea, that thou fleddest? They are swifter than eagles, they are stronger than lions. Canst thou by searching find out God? Canst thou find out the Almighty unto perfection? What a piece of work is man! how noble in reason! how infinite in faculties! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a God! It is only when some moral or political Waterloo or Solferino is to be fought, that he puts on the entire panoply of his gorgeous rhetoric.

Explain the figures in 1 Kings xviii. 27; 2 Pet. i. 5-7; also Judges ix. 8-17.

Interrogation. Apostrophe. Climax.

PUNCTUATION.

240. Definitions and Distinctions.

1. Punctuation is the art of dividing written composition by means of points.

2. Points are used to separate either *entire* sentences, or the *elements* of sentences.

NOTE.—Let it be understood, that an element may be either a *word*, a *phrase*, or *clause*.

3. A point should not be used,—

(a.) To separate the parts of a *simple* element.

(b.) To separate two *united* elements when arranged grammatically, and closely joined.

(c.) To separate two united elements simply because, in the *utterance*, a *pause* should be made.

NOTE.—Points are used to mark the *sense*, rather than the *pauses*. It is true, that a pause should generally be made where there is a point, but it is not equally true that a point should be placed wherever there is a pause.

4. A point is required,—

(1.) Always at the end of a full *sentence*.

(2.) Always between the *members* of a loose sentence.

(3.) Generally between two *elements* of a sentence,—

(a.) When several *similar* elements come together.

(b.) When an element is *loosely* connected.

(c.) When more closely connected, but *transposed*.

(d.) When closely connected, but greatly *extended* in length.

(e.) When some important word is *omitted*.

(f.) When, in any case, the meaning would be *obscure* or *ambiguous* without a point.

5. As an example of the effect of pointing, see the change of meaning in the following words:—

James Johnson says he has written beautifully. James, Johnson says he has written beautifully. “James Johnson,” says he, “has written beautifully.” James Johnson says he has written “beautifully.”

6. The principal punctuation marks are, the *comma* (,), the *semi-colon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *dash* (—), the *parenthesis* (), the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (?), and the *exclamation point* (!).

Punctuation. Entire sentences and elements of sentences. When no points are used. Cases where points are required. Effect of pointing. The principal points.

POINTS USED WITHIN A SENTENCE.

241. General Uses of the Comma.

1. The comma is used principally in separating the *elements* of simple or complex sentences.

2. As the comma interrupts, in some measure, the union of two elements (160), it should never be employed to break the connection when one necessarily restricts the meaning of the other.

3. When an element to be pointed off stands at the beginning or end of a sentence, *one* comma only is used; but when it stands within the sentence, *two* commas are usually employed; as, "In fact, the people are the dupes of demagogues." "The people, in fact, are the dupes of demagogues."

4. The comma is often used to mark the omission of a word, especially that of the verb in closely connected clauses; as, "Semiramis built Babylon; Dido, Carthage; and Romulus, Rome."

5. The comma may be used to separate,—

(a) *Coördinate elements.*

(b) *A principal from a subordinate element.*

(c) *Two principal elements.*

(d) *An independent, or a parenthetical element from the rest of the sentence.* ;

242. Coördinate Elements.

1. All coördinate elements may be divided into,—

(a.) *Coördinate pairs, or couplets, consisting of two coördinate terms.*

(b.) *Coördinate series, consisting of three or more coördinate terms.* Thus, "*Nouns and pronouns*" is a couplet; "*Nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and participles*" is a coördinate series. In the following example we have a series of couplets or compound terms:—"But, whether *ingenious* or *dull*, *learned* or *ignorant*, *clownish* or *polite*, every innocent man, without exception, has as good a right to liberty as to life."—*Beattie*.

2. The pointing of couplets depends, in some measure, upon the closeness of the connection. As a general rule, two elements are most closely connected when correlatives are used, except when used for *contrast* or *emphasis*, less closely connected when a single conjunction is employed, and least of all when none is used;—as, "He was both *virtuous* and *wise*;" "He was *virtuous* and *wise*;" "He was *virtuous*, *wise*."

3. The terms of a coördinate couplet, as a general rule, should not be separated.

The comma separates elements. Not to break an intimate relation. *One* comma, *two* commas. Omission of a word. Coördinate pairs. Coördinate series. Rules for couplets.

EXAMPLES.—“*Hope and fear, pleasure and pain, diversify our lives ;*”
 “*Virtue or vice predominates in every man and woman.*”

4. The terms of a coördinate couplet should be separated,—

(a.) When the conjunction is omitted.

(b.) When the terms are identical or equivalent.

(c.) When the terms are contrasted or emphatically distinguished.

(d.) When either term is limited by an element not applicable to the other or is more extended than the other.

(e.) When both are limited, and thus considerably extended.

EXAMPLES.—(a.) “*The sweetest, wildest land on earth.*” (b.) “*Rise, rise, ye wild tempests ;*” “*Verily, verily, I say unto you ;*” “*We sailed into an inlet, or bay.*” (c.) “*’Tis certain he could write, and cipher too.*” “*The fellow was wicked, not weak.*” (See 244, 4, d.). (d.) “*Undue susceptibility, and the preponderance of mere feeling over thoughtfulness, may mislead us.*” (e.) *Integrity of understanding, and nicety of discernment, were not allotted in a less proportion to Dryden than to Pope.*”

NOTE.—Contrasted words, having a common dependence, and not emphatically distinguished, should not be separated ; as, “*He led an easy but useless life.*” Not so with contrasted phrases ; as, “*It was not the result of a hasty, but of a deliberate, judgment.*”

5. The terms of a coördinate series, whether simple, complex, or compound, should be separated by the comma.

EXAMPLES.—“*In pronouncing the words lilies, roses, tulips, pinks, jonquils, we see the things themselves, and seem to taste their beauty and sweetness ;*” “*The good man is alive to all the sympathies, the sanctions, and the loves of social existence ;*” “*Sink or swim, live or die, I give my hand and my heart to this vote.*”

*Castles and villas, tiles, vassals, land,
 Coaches and curricles, and fours-in-hand.”*

6. The final term of a couplet or series is generally not separated from the term grammatically dependent upon it, except,—

(a.) When the conjunction is omitted.

(b.) When the terms are considerably complex.

(c.) When the meaning is made clearer by the point. (See 244, 2, b.).

EXAMPLES.—“*Capture, demolish, and burn their cities.*” (a.) “*Capture, demolish, burn, their cities.*” (b.) “*Ingratitude for favors, undue regard for self, and forgetfulness of others, are marks of a weak and sordid mind.*”

NOTE.—By some, yet erroneously, the last noun of a compound subject, is separated from the verb, even when the conjunction is used ; as, “*Homer, Virgil, and Horace, were the most renowned of the ancient poets.*”

7. When the terms of a couplet or a series consist of coördinate clauses, whether the propositions themselves are principal or subordinate, a

Rule for series. Exceptions. Coördinate clauses.

comma should separate them, except as in (249, 1, a., b.); as, "That their poetry is almost uniformly mournful, and that their views of nature were dark and dreary, will be allowed by all who admit the authenticity of Ossian;" "I was hungry, and ye gave me no meat."

243. Exercise.

1. *Explain by (242, 3) why the following couplets are not separated:—*

Peter and John went up together into the temple at the hour of prayer. His bitter and scoffing speech had inflicted keener wounds than his ambition. The powers of their mind seem to be parched up and withered by the public gaze. In his letters and conversation he alluded to the greatest potentates. He acted neither wisely nor prudently. Either you or I must go.

2. *Explain the punctuation of the following by (242, 3, a. b. c., &c.).*

Liberal, not lavish, is nature's hand. We often commend, as well as censure, imprudently. He can eat, and sleep too. None, but thou, can aid us. For Christ sent me not to baptize, but to preach the gospel. Public charities, and benevolent associations, for the gratuitous relief of every species of distress, are peculiar to Christianity. Powerful friends, and first-rate connections, often assist a man's rise, and contribute to his promotion. Illustrious men have often lived unrewarded, and died unlamented. Blow, blow, thou winter wind. Freeze, freeze, thou bitter sky. A comma is a point, or mark. Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead. The deaf, the blind, the lame, and the palsied were there. Decrepid age, and vigorous life, and blooming youth, and helpless infancy poured forth to gather round her tomb. She plans, provides, expatiates, triumphs there. The rich and the poor, the high and the low, the learned and the unlearned, have access alike to this fountain of peace. The air, the earth, the water, teem with delighted existence. Children climb the green mound of the rampart, and ivy holds together the half-demolished buttress.

When riseth Lacedæmon's hardihood,
When Thebes Epaminondas rears again,
When Athens' children are with arts endued,
When Grecian mothers shall give birth to men,
Then thou may'st be restored:—but not till then.

"Blessing, honor, glory, might,
Are the Conqueror's native right;
Thrones and powers before him fall—
Lamb of God, and Lord of all!"

244. Principal and Subordinate Elements.

1. A subordinate element generally, whether a word, a phrase, or a clause, is not separated from the principal element to which it belongs when used restrictively, or when the connection is close; as, "*He that hath no rule over his own spirit is like a city that is broken down;*" "*The kings of the earth set themselves;*" "*The precise period when (202, 21) the discovery was made, is not known.*"

2. The *adjective* element should be pointed off in the following cases,—

(a.) When an adjective clause, either *full*, or in its equivalent *abridged* form, is *explanatory* (202, 13); as, "*We venerate the name of Washington, who was styled the father of his country;*" "*Passion is like a whirlwind, prostrating indiscriminately whatever comes in its way.*" In this case, two commas (241, 3) are used when the clause comes within the sentence before the predicate.

(b.) When the antecedent is a coördinate series (242, 1), even a restrictive clause is pointed off, to show that the relative belongs equally to each of its terms; as, "*The oxygen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid, which unite to form the atmosphere, are mingled in unequal proportions.*"

(c.) The noun in *apposition* may be considered as derived from an adjective clause containing a predicate noun, and is always to be pointed off when it is *explanatory* (208, 3); as, "*Moses, the servant of the Lord, died there in the land of Moab;*" "*I have killed the king, my husband.*"

(d.) A noun in apposition, when used restrictively, or when with a personal pronoun, or another noun, it forms a close combination, is not pointed off; as, "*King John;*" "*General Gates;*" "*Ye winds;*" "*Gladdening brothers;*" yet, when two closely combined names are inverted, the comma is used; as, "*Lincoln, Levi;*" "*Harrison, William Henry.*"

(e.) A noun in apposition, if modified by phrases or clauses, is usually pointed off; as, "*Theodore, the hermit of Teneriffe.*"

(f.) A noun in apposition, or an adjective or participial phrase equivalent to a subordinate clause, when employed to introduce a sentence, is pointed off; as, "*A professed Catholic, he imprisoned the Pope;*" "*Cradled in the camp, Napoleon was the darling of his army.*"

3. The *objective* element, whether a word, phrase, or clause, is closely connected to the verb on which it depends, and, unless transposed, should not be pointed off; as, "*The ox knoweth his owner;*" "*They long to see that day;*" "*I know not what we can do;*" "*The impending storm which threatened us, we all escaped.*"

(a.) Though, as a general rule, inverted and loosely connected phrases or clauses should not intervene between the object and its governing verb, when such cases do occur, commas should separate them from the verb and its object; as, "*He wishes, in fine, to join his companions;*" "*He has bought, as I am told, a large tract of uncultivated land.*"

Subordinate elements not pointed off. The adjective element, when pointed off, when not. The objective element, when pointed off, when not.

(b.) When an objective clause is a direct quotation (170), and is separated by the principal clause, the latter should be pointed off by two commas,—otherwise by one; as, “For all that,” said the pendulum, “it is very dark here;” “I say unto all, Watch.”

(c.) The double object of a copulative verb should not be separated when the first has the emphasis, or when they are equally emphatic; as, “They called him John;” “They called Miles a carpenter.” But when the emphasis falls strongly on the second, it should be pointed off; as, “And they called Barnabas, Jupiter; and Paul, Mercurius.”

4. The *adverbial* element is often more loosely connected than either the adjective or the objective, and is, consequently, more frequently transposed; yet, when arranged in its natural order, whether it be a word, phrase, or clause, or when closely connected, it should not be pointed off; as, “Rejoice not *when thine enemy falleth*; and let not thine heart be glad *when he stumbleth*;” “*On the summit of the mountain* the air is cool and refreshing;” “The child was treated *kindly*.”

(a.) All loosely connected adverbial expressions, whether words, phrases, or clauses, and especially such adverbial and conjunctive words and phrases as *again, now, then, however, therefore, too, besides, further, once more, in fine, in general, on the contrary, without doubt, as it seems to me, and the like*, should be pointed off (248 and 241, 3); as, “*On the contrary*, the truth lies here.”

(b.) Phrases and clauses, which, in the natural order, would be so closely connected as to need no point, are usually pointed off when inverted, and always when the meaning would be doubtful without a point; as, “*But to Ossian*, thou lookest in vain;” “*When thou goest*, thy steps shall not be straitened.” In the case of inverted phrases, which commence a sentence, the point is often omitted; as, “*On the third day* Burke rose.”—Macaulay.

(c.) Adverbial clauses, especially when long, and always if loosely connected, are pointed off, wherever placed. These are generally such as denote *condition, purpose, concession, cause, time, or place*; as, “Kiss the Son, *lest he be angry, and ye perish*.”

(d.) When a subordinate element is connected by means of correlatives, it is closely united, and, therefore, not generally pointed off, especially when *than* or *as, so—that, or such—that*, are used; but *is* used more or less by way of contrast in all other cases, and, hence, pointed off; as, “Never take *more* food *than* is conducive to health;” “*Though* thou be sought for, *yet* shalt thou never be found again;” “*Though* deep, *yet* clear.”

245. Exercise.

In the following examples, point out the principal and the subordinate elements; and show why the comma is, or is not, used according to (244, 1, 2, 3, 4):—

He that covereth his sins shall not prosper; but whoso confesseth and forsaketh them shall have mercy. The wicked flee when no man pur-

The adverbial element, when pointed off, when not.

sueth. Some have wondered how it happens that those who have shone conspicuously at the bar should have been eclipsed in the senate. He had faults unknown to all but his most intimate friends (2, a. b. c.). Men of strong minds, who think for themselves, should not be discouraged, on finding occasionally that some of their best ideas have been anticipated by former writers. There are many good-natured fellows who have paid the forfeit of their lives to their love of bantering and raillery. The oranges, lemons, and figs, which grow in the northern range of the Southern States, are of an inferior quality. No thought can be just, of which good sense is not the ground-work. I therefore, the prisoner of the Lord, beseech you. Thus saith the Lord, your Redeemer, the Holy One of Israel, I am the Lord, your God. General Howe commanded the British forces. Otis, James A. O ye laurels! He called the name of that place Bethel. Daniel Webster, the great American statesman, died at Marshfield. I at first believed that all these objects existed within me. And cried, "I've caught you then at last." "My dear Edward," said he, "this is truly kind." Fortunately for him, a little below this place was an island. The beginning of strife is as when one letteth out water. If one burden can be borne, so can another and another. I am willing, for the general satisfaction, to assign my reasons.

246. The Principal Elements.

1. Except when the complex subject is very long, no comma is required between it and the predicate; as, "He who masters his passions conquers his greatest enemy."

2. It can scarcely be called an exception to this rule, that a point should be placed before the predicate, when preceded by a phrase pointed off by (244, 4, a.); as, "The most delicious fruits, *generally speaking*, are found in tropical climates." So, again by (242, 6, a.) a comma should be placed before the predicate; as, "*Patience, meekness, humility*, are among the noblest Christian virtues."

3. When the logical subject ends with a verb, or when, without a comma, the meaning might be doubtful, a comma should be placed before the predicate; as, "Whatever is, is right."

4. When the attribute is a clause, a comma should be placed between it and the copula; as, "The reason is, that the proposition itself is preposterous."

247. Exercise.

Show by (246, 1, 2, 3, 4) why the comma is used or omitted in the following examples:—

The fate of a brave people was to be decided. Each of the negotia-

No point between the subject and predicate. Exceptions.

tors had what the other wanted. Some, from a diseased fancy, cannot confine themselves to a single spot. All these mistaken pursuers of good, sooner or later, are the prey of excessive ennui. Industry, frugality, economy, are essential to thrift. The want of fuel, of water, and of forage, compelled the party to retreat. He who has learned to obey, may hope to govern. He that seeketh, findeth. The truth is, that the whole of the surface of these beautiful plains is clad throughout the season of verdure with every imaginable variety of color. The question is, "Where shall we go?"

248. Independent and Parenthetical Expressions.

1. Independent expressions should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; as, "Yet once more, O ye laurels;" "Gad, a troop shall overcome him;" "This said, he formed thee Adam, thee, O man;" "To confess the truth, I was in error;" "Generally speaking, little can be done after the first month;" "Saying, Lord, Lord, open unto us."

(a.) When a direct address is expressive of strong feeling, the exclamation point is used; as, "O Desdemona! Desdemona! dead!"

(b.) Interjections in many cases require no pause, but when pointed off at all, are separated by the comma, if not emphatic; otherwise by the exclamation point; as, "O sing to me of Heaven;" "Lo, here is Christ;" "Oh! what a situation I am placed in?"

(c.) Expressions used *parenthetically* should be pointed off by the comma; as, "Thou knowest, *come what may*, that the light of truth cannot be put out."

249. The Semicolon and Colon.

1. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence which are loosely connected; as, "Make a proper use of your time; for the loss of it can never be regained."

(a.) *Coördinate principal clauses* are separated by the semicolon when the conjunction is omitted, or when the connection is not close; as, "Life is short; art is long;" "A clownish air is but a small defect; yet it is enough to make a man disagreeable."

(b.) *Subordinate parts*, when extended, if they form a coördinate series either at the beginning or end of a sentence, are separated by the semicolon, when not so closely connected as to require a comma.

Independent expressions separated by points,—sometimes by a comma, sometimes by an exclamation point. Parenthetical expressions.

EXAMPLE.—"Philosophers assert that Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries of which we have not the slightest idea."

(c.) The semicolon should be placed before *as*, used to introduce an example. See the examples in the preceding paragraphs.

(d.) The semicolon is used before *namely*, *viz.*, *to wit*, when the subdivisions of a preceding term are introduced in a formal way; otherwise the comma or dash is used; as, "Pronouns are divided into three classes; *namely*, *Personal*, *Relative*, and *Interrogative*." Less formally, thus:—"Into three classes—*Personal*, *Relative*, and *Interrogative*."

(e.) The colon is now but little used except before examples following the expressions *as follows*, *the following examples*, *in these words*, &c.; as, "Perform the following exercises:" "He used these words: Mr. President:" &c. It is also used to separate the terms of a proportion; as, "A : B :: C : D."

250. Exercise.

Insert the comma, the semicolon, and the colon where they are required in the following examples:—

Never value yourself upon your fortune for this is the sign of a weak mind. Pope had perhaps the judgment of Dryden but Dryden certainly wanted the diligence of Pope. The great tendency and purpose of poetry is to carry the mind above and beyond the beaten dusty weary walks of ordinary life to lift it into a purer element and to breathe into it more profound and generous emotion. Write on your slates the following example Mary and John will go. Endeavor to excel much may be accomplished by perseverance. He has two coats namely a black one and a gray one. The noun is the name of an object as *Boston paper*.

251. The Dash and Parenthesis.

1. The *dash* is used where there is a significant pause, an unexpected transition in the sentence, or where a sentence is left unfinished; as, "He sometimes counsel takes, and sometimes—snuff." "But I must first —."

2. The dash is now frequently used instead of the parenthesis; as, "The colonists—such is human nature—desired to burn the town in which they had been so wretched."

3. The dash, or comma and dash, may be placed before the parts which resume a whole, or before a construction which is resumed; as,

The colon. The dash.

“There are three persons—the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.” “You speak like a boy,—like a boy who thinks the old gnarled oak can be twisted as easy as the young sapling.”

4. The *parenthesis* is used to enclose a part of a sentence not necessary to the construction, but in some way explanatory of the meaning of the sentence; as, “Consider (and may the consideration sink deep into your hearts) the fatal consequences of a wicked life.”

252. Exercise.

Insert the dash and the parenthesis where they are required in the following examples :—

Horror burst the bands of sleep; but my feelings words are too weak, too powerless to express them. The Egyptian style of architecture see Dr. Pocock, not his discourses but his prints was apparently the mother of the Greek. While they wished to please, and why should they not wish it, they disdained honorable means. If thou art he, so much respected once but, O, how fallen! how degraded! The atmosphere is composed of three parts oxygen, nitrogen, and carbonic acid gas. Greece, Carthage, Rome where are they?

POINTS USED AT THE CLOSE OF A SENTENCE.

253. The Period.

1. The *period* is used at the close of a declarative or an imperative sentence; as, “Knowledge is not only pleasant, but useful and honorable.”

2. The period is used after abbreviations; as, “The age of MSS. is, in some instances, known by dates inserted in them;” “I was invited to meet Mr. and Mrs. Clifford.”

3. The period is placed after any *word, heading, title*, or other expression used independently and alone; as, *Exercise. The Period. H. Cowperthwait and Company.*

4. The period is used after numeral letters; as, V. XII.

254. Exercise.

Insert the period where it is required in the following examples :—

Truth is the basis of every virtue It is the voice of reason Let its

Parenthesis. Period, at the close of a sentence; after abbreviations, words, headings, &c.; after numeral letters.

precepts be religiously obeyed Never transgress its limits Abhor a falsehood I would say to the people, You cannot, without guilt and disgrace, stop where you are The oration was delivered by J L Thompson, Esq The event occurred B C 1001 To R H Dana Jun Esq the well-known author of "Two Years before the Mast," the community are greatly indebted But the seasons are not alike in all countries of the same region, for the reasons already given See Chap VI § 2 ¶ 4 p 330 See (257, 4) Little and Brown's store A new thing under the sun Ripe apples for sale Chapter XX Sec X Part I

255. Interrogation and Exclamation Points.

1. An *interrogation point* is used at the close of an interrogative, and an *exclamation point* at the close of an exclamatory sentence; as, "Who comes there?" "How unsearchable are his ways!"

2. When an interrogative sentence is used as a subordinate clause,—

(1.) The interrogation point is employed when the clause is quoted directly; as, "He said, Why do you weep?"

(2.) The interrogation point is not employed where the clause is quoted indirectly; as, "He asked me why I wept."

3. An exclamation point is often used within a sentence, after an exclamatory expression or an interjection; as, "O, Jove Supreme! whom men and gods revere!" "O! let soft pity touch the mind!"

256. Exercises.

Insert interrogation and exclamation points where they are required in the following examples:—

Daughter of Faith awake arise illumine the dread unknown the chaos of the tomb Whither shall I turn Wretch that I am To what place shall I betake myself O Pascal thou wert pure in heart in this world, and now thou art in full sight of God. Apostles of liberty what millions attest the authenticity of your mission Did she fall like Lucifer, never to hope again To purchase heaven has gold the power Who shall separate us from the love of Christ What kill thy friend who lent thee money, for asking thee for it The secret I implore: out with it speak discover utter

Punctuate correctly in all respects the following examples:—

What a piece of work is man How noble in reason how infinite in faculties in form and moving how express and admirable in action how

Interrogation points—after subordinate clauses. Exclamation points within a sentence.

like an angel in apprehension how like a God The air was mild as summer all corn was off the ground and the skylarks were singing aloud by the way I saw not one at Keswick perhaps because the place abounds in birds of prey. Dr H Marsh F R S &c Bishop of Peterborough b 1757 d 1839 As the pupil is often obliged to bend all his faculties to the task before him and tears sometimes fall on the page he is studying so it is in the school of God's providence there are hard lessons in it When the poor victims were bayoneted clinging round the knees of the soldiers would my friend but I could not pursue the strain of my interrogation

257. Other Marks used in Writing.

1. *Brackets* ([]) are used when a word or phrase is introduced for explanation or connection; as, "He [the teacher] thus explained the difficulty."

2. The *Apostrophe* (') is used either to denote the possessive case, or the omission of a letter; as, "John's." "O'er."

3. The *Quotation Marks* (" ") are used to include a passage taken verbatim from some other author; as, "He said, 'I relinquish my claim.'"

4. The *Asterisk* [*], the *Obelisk* (†), the *Double Dagger* (‡), and the *Parallels* (||) are used to refer to notes in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Sometimes the *Section* (§) and the *Paragraph* (¶) are used. Also, small letters, or figures, which refer to notes at the foot of the page.

5. The *Caret* (^) is used in writing to show that some letter, word, or phrase has been omitted; as, "The pencil lies ^{on} the table."
^

6. The *Hyphen* (-) is used to separate the parts of a compound word; as, "Book-binder." When placed at the end of a line, it shows the word is divided, the remaining part being carried to the next line.

7. The *Ellipsis* (***) (—) is used to denote the omission of certain letters or words; as, "C***ll." "K——g."

8. The *Brace* () connects a number of words with one common term.

Brackets. Apostrophe. Quotation marks. Asterisk, &c. Caret. Hyphen. Ellipsis. Brace.

9. The *Index* (☞) points to some remarkable passage.

10. The *Section* (§) also denotes the divisions of a treatise.

11. A *Paragraph* (¶) also denotes the beginning of a new subject.

12. The vowel marks are the *Diaeresis* (¨), placed over the second of two vowels which are separated; the *Long* sound (—), placed over a long vowel; the *Breve*, or *Short* sound (˘), placed over a short vowel; and accents, *Grave* (`), *Acute* (´), and *Circumflex* (^).

NOTE.—The best practical exercises on all these marks and points, will be given by the teacher. Let the pupil be required to construct sentences requiring the use of them; or, let the teacher read from some book, any passage which demands their use, and let the class be required to insert them in their proper places.

258. Exercise.

Punctuate properly the following examples, and insert the capitals:—

what was cæsar that stood upon the bank of the rubicon a traitor
bringing war and pestilence into the heart of that country no wonder
that he paused no wonder if his imagination wrought upon by his con-
science he had beheld blood instead of water and heard groans instead
of murmurs no wonder if some gorgon horror had turned him into stone
upon the spot but no he cried the die is cast he plunged he crossed and
rome was free no more knowles.

what sort of eyes can you have got said he
why very good ones friend as you may see
yes i perceive the clearness of the ball
pray let me ask you can you read at all

, Index. Section. Paragraph. Diaeresis, &c. Exercise.

PROSODY.

259. Definition.

Prosody treats of the laws of versification.

260. Verse.

1. A *verse* is a succession of accented and unaccented syllables, constituting a line of poetry.

2. A *couplet* is the combination of two lines or verses. A *triplet* consists of three lines.

3. A *stanza* is the combination of several lines forming a division of a poem or song.

4. *Verse* is sometimes erroneously applied to a stanza.

5. Verse is of two kinds—*rhyme* and *blank verse*.

6. *Rhyme* is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to that of another.

7. *Blank verse* is verse without rhyme.

261. Feet.

1. A *foot* is a portion of verse containing two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

2. The *quantity* of a syllable is the time employed in uttering it. All syllables are either *long* or *short*.

3. In English, an accented syllable is considered *long*; and an unaccented, *short*.

4. A straight line (—) over a syllable shows that it is accented, and a curved line (˘) that it is unaccented.

5. The principal feet in English are the *iambus*, the *trochee*, the *anapæst*, and the *dactyl*.

6. The *iambus* consists of a short and a long syllable; as, “*invîte*,” “*dévôte*,” “*bénign*.”

Prosody. Verse. Couplet. Stanza. Rhyme and blank verse. A foot.
Quantity. Iambus.

7. The *trochee* consists of a long and a short syllable; as, “*grateful*,” “*grievous*.”

8. The *anapaest* consists of two short syllables and one long one; as, “*incomplete*,” “*condescend*.”

9. The *dactyl* consists of one long syllable and two short ones; as, “*positive*,” “*loneliness*.”

10. Besides the kinds of feet mentioned above, four others sometimes occur,—the *pyrrhic* and the *spondee*, the *amphibrach*, and the *tribrach*. The *pyrrhic* consists of two short, and the *spondee* of two long syllables; as, in *thē (vale)*; “*vūn mān*.” The *amphibrach* has three syllables, of which the first and third are short, the second is long; as, “*contentment*.” The *tribrach* consists of three short syllables; as, “(*innu*)*merrable*.”

11. These last four feet are seldom found in English poetry. They sometimes mingle with other feet, and give thereby a pleasing variety; as,

“Frōm pēak | tō pēak | the rāt- | tīng crāgs | āmōng.
Lēaps thē | livē thūn- | dēr! nōt | frōm ōne | lōne clōūd.”

Here, in the second line, the first foot is a *trochee*, and the second is a *spondee*. They occur in a single verse of an Iambic poem.

262. Exercises.

1. What foot does each of the following words contain:—

Absent, control, viewing, darkness, complete, correct, glory, reproduce, indite, reconstruct, compose, gloriously, positive, acquiesce, reunite, beautiful, sweetest, comforter, overcome, churlishness, nourishing, intercede, foolishness.

2. Prefix one or more words to the following, so as to make a phrase consisting of two iambic feet, thus:—

“*A new* | *supply*. — *defeat*. — *disgrace*. — *accord*. — *proclaims*. — *commends*. — *divine*. — *entreats*. — *believes*.”

263. Classification of Verse.

1. A line consisting of one foot is called *monometer*; of two, *dimeter*; of three, *trimeter*; of four, *tetrameter*; of five, *pentameter*; of six, *hexameter*; of seven, *heptameter*.

2. When a syllable is wanting, the line is said to be *catalectic*; when

Trochee. Anapaest. Dactyl. Other kinds of feet. Classes of verse.

the measure is full, the line is *acatalectic*; when there is a redundant syllable, it is called *hypermeter*.

264. Scanning.

1. *Scanning* consists in dividing a verse into the feet which compose it.

265. Iambic Verse.

1. *Iambic of one foot—monometer* :—

Thěy gō
To sow.

2. *Iambic of two feet—dimeter* :—

Tō mē | thě rōse
No longer glows.

3. *Iambic of three feet—trimeter* :—

Nō rēy- | āl pōmp | ādōrns
This King of righteousness.

4. *Iambic of four feet—tetrameter* :—

And cōld- | ēr still | thě wīnds | dīd blōw,
And darker hours of night came on.

5. *Iambic of five feet—pentameter* :—

On rift- | ęd rōcks, | thě drāg- | ǒn's lāte | ābōdes,
The green reed trembles, and the bulrush nods.

6. *Iambic of six feet—hexameter* :—

Hīs heārt | 1s sād, | hīs hōpe | 1s gōne, | hīs light | 1s pāssed;
He sits and mourns in silent grief the lingering day.

7. *Iambic of seven feet—heptameter* :—

Thě lōf- | tỹ hīll, | thě hūm- | blě lāwn, | wīth cōunt- | lēss
beaū- | tīes shīne;
The silent grove, the solemn shade, proclaim thy power divine.

8. Iambic of five feet is called *heroic* verse; that of six feet is called *Alexandrine*.

9. Iambic of seven feet is commonly divided into two lines—the first containing four feet, the second three. This is called *common metre*; as,

Scanning. Iambic verse. Heroic. Alexandrine.

The lofty hill, the humble lawn,
 With countless beauties shine;
 The silent grove, the solemn shade,
 Proclaim thy power divine.

10. In *long metre*, each line has four iambic feet; in *short metre*, the first, second, and fourth lines contain three iambic feet, the third four.

11. Each species of iambic verse may have one additional short syllable, thus :—

- (a.) Rēlēnt- | ینگ.
- (b.) Upōn | ă mōun- | tain.
- (c.) Whēn ōn | hēr Mā- | kēr's bō- | sōm.
- (d.) Fīrst thīs | lārge pār- | cēl brings | yōu tī- | dīngs.
- (e.) Eāch sūb- | stānce ōf | ă grief | hāth twēn- | tỹ shād- | ōws.
- (f.) Thīne eȳe | Jōve's light- | nīng sēems, | thỹ voice | hīs drēad- | fūl thūn- | dēr.
- (g.) Hōw gāy- | lỹ ō- | vēr fēll | ănd fēn | yōn spōrts- | mǎn light | ȳ dāsh- | ینگ!

266. Trochaic Verse.

1. Trochaic of one foot :—

Chāngīng,
 Ranging.

2. Trochaic of two feet :—

Fāncỹ | viēwīng,
 Joys ensuing.

3. Trochaic of three feet :—

Gō whēre | glōrỹ | wāits thēe,
 But when fame elates thee.

4. Trochaic of four feet :—

'Twās thē | hōur whēn | rītes ūn | hōly,
 Called each | Paynim | voice to | prayer.

5. Trochaic of five feet :—

All thāt | wālk ōn | fōot ōr | rīde īn | chāriōts,
 All that dwell in palaces or garrets.

6. Trochaic of six feet :—

On ă | mōuntāin | strēched, bē- | nēath ă | hōarỹ | willōw,
 Lay a shepherd swain, and viewed the rolling billow.

Long Metre. Trochaic verse.

7. In trochaic verse, the accent is placed upon the odd syllables; in iambic, on the even.

8. Trochaic verse may take an additional long syllable; as,

(a.) Whēre we | māy
Think and pray.

(b.) And āt | mōrn thēy | play,
In the foaming spray.

(c.) Heaving | upward | to the | light.

(d.) Where- | fore | thus my | weary | spirit | woo?

(e.) Reared 'mid | fauns and | fairies, | knew he | no com- | peers.

(f.) Casting | down their | golden | crowns a- | round the | glassy |
sea.

267. Anapæstic Verse.

1. *Anapæstic of one foot*:—

Būt in vāin
They complain.

2. *Anapæstic of two feet*:—

Whēre thē sūn | lōves tō paūse
With so fond a delay.

3. *Anapæstic of three feet*:—

Frōm thē cēn- | trē, āll rōund | tō thē sēa,
I'm lord of the fowl and the brute.

4. *Anapæstic of four feet*:—

O, yōung | Lōchínvār | is cōme ōut | ōf thē wēst,
Through all | the wide bor- | der his steed | was the best.

5. In anapæstic verse, the accent falls on every third syllable. The first foot of an anapæstic verse may be an iambus; as,

And mōr- | tāls thē swēets | ōf fōrgēt- | fūlnēss prōve.

268. Dactylic Verse.

1. *Dactylic of one foot*:—

Chēerfūlly,
Fearfully.

2. *Dactylic of two feet*:—

Fāthēr āll | glōrīōūs,
O'er all victōrious.

Anapæstic verse. Dactylic verse.

3. *Dactylic of three feet* :—

Weāring ā- | wāy in hīs | yōuthfūlnēss,
Loveliness, beauty, and truthfulness.

4. *Dactylic of four feet* :—

Shāme ānd dīs | hōnōr sīt | bȳ hīs grāve | ēvēr,
Blessings shall | hallow it, | never oh, | never!

5. Few poems are perfectly regular in their feet. Dactylic verse is very irregular; the final short syllables are often omitted, as in the last example. The different kinds of feet are often mingled in the same verse, thus :—

I cōme, | I cōme; | yě hāve cāllēd | me lōng;
I cōme | ō'er thē mōun- | taīns wīth līght | ānd sōng.

269. Poetic Pauses.

1. Besides the pauses required by the sense or grammatical construction of verse, two pauses—the *final* and *cæsural*—may also occur.

2. The *final* pause occurs at the end of each line, whether the sense requires it or not.

3. The *cæsural* pause occurs within the line itself, and is only a suspension of the voice; as,

“Ask for what *end*—the heavenly bodies shine.”

270. Exercise.

1. *Scan the following, and tell what kind of verse it is* :—

Art is long, and time is fleeting,
And our hearts, though stout and brave,
Still like muffled drums are beating,
Funeral marches to the grave.—*Longfellow.*

From Greenland's icy mountains,
From India's coral strand,
Where Afric's sunny fountains
Roll down their golden sand;
From many an ancient river,
From many a palmy plain,
They call us to deliver
Their land from errors' chain.—*Heber.*

Poetic pauses. Final. Cæsural.

Hail, holy Light, offspring of Heaven first-born,
Or of the Eternal co-eternal beam!
May I express thee unblamed? since God is light,
And never but in unapproach'd light
Dwelt from eternity, dwelt then in thee,
Bright effluence of bright essence increate!
Or hear'st thou rather, pure ethereal stream,
Whose fountain who shall tell?—*Milton.*

Ye nymphs of Solyma! begin the song;
To heavenly themes sublimer strains belong.
The mossy fountains and the sylvan shades,
The dreams of Pindus and th' Aonian maids,
Delight no more!—O thou my voice inspire,
Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire!—*Pope.*

Ruin seize thee, ruthless king!
Confusion on thy banners wait!
Though fanned by conquest's crimson wing,
They mock the air with idle state.—*Gray.*

Earth may hide—waves engulf—fire consume us,
But they shall not to slavery doom us;
If they rule, it shall be o'er our ashes and graves,
But we've smote them already with fire on the waves;
And new triumphs on land are before us,
To the charge!—Heaven's banner is o'er us.—*Campbell.*

Hail to the chief who in triumph advances!
Honored and blest be the ever-green pine!
Long may the tree in his banner that glances,
Flourish, the shelter and grace of our line!
Heaven send it happy dew,
Earth lend it sap anew,
Gayly to bourgeon, and broadly to grow;
While every highland glen
Sends our shout back again,
Roderigh Vich Alpine Dhu, ho! ieroe!—*Scott.*

The night winds come and go, mother, upon the meadow grass,
And the happy stars above them, seem to brighten as they pass;
There will not be a drop of rain the whole of the livelong day,
And I'm to be Queen o' the May, mother, I'm to be Queen o' the May.—
Tennyson.

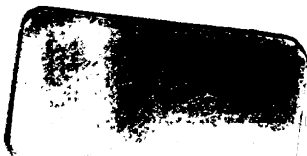
Then read from the treasured volume
The poem of thy choice,
And lend to the rhyme of the poet
The beauty of thy voice.

And the night shall be filled with music,
And the cares, that infest the day,
Shall fold their tents, like the Arabs,
And as silently steal away.—*Longfellow.*

Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime—
Where the rage of the vulture, the love of the turtle,
Now melt into softness, now madden to crime?—
'Tis the land of the East!—'tis the clime of the Sun!—
Can he smile on such deeds as his children have done?—*Byron.*

THE END.

There are many of my name are many.
The one of my name are many,
And I shall can see for myself,
Yet I have on the ground.





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